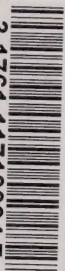



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WOMEN AND JOBS: THE IMPACT OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT STRATEGIES ON WOMEN

By

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June 1980

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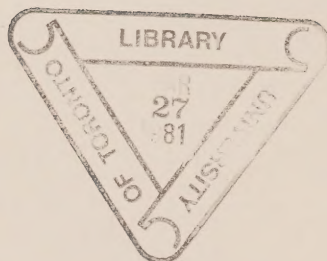


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Dedicated to the memory of
my mother
Corina Wagman



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Needless to say, responsibility for any shortcomings of the study rests with me alone.

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Preface

There is a national embarrassment. It is the failure of our culture to even recognize, let alone realize, the riches and human potential of its female workers. Along with this, there is the additional embarrassment of the continued disadvantaged economic situation of women amidst the affluence of our society.

This report is a story of an embarrassment of riches. The focus of this study is on the role of federal employment strategies and labour market policies in bringing about a long-awaited resolution to the pressing issues relating to women and work.

In order to understand labour market policies as they relate to women, it is first necessary to review the economic status of women in our society. The disadvantaged economic position of women has been well documented by many others. Hence, I will only briefly summarize its salient features here and rather focus on its relationship to the employment strategies of the federal government. Since the Royal Commission on the Status of Women published its findings in 1970 there has been little improvement in the status of women. Although large increases in the participation rates of women have resulted in an influx of women into the labour force, this important trend has not improved other economic realities for women. Increases in female participation rates have been accompanied by increases in the female unemployment rate. In 1978 the measured unemployment rate of women rose to 9.6%. (In comparison, the unemployment rate of men was estimated at 7.6% for that year.) If discouraged and under-employed workers were also included, the under-utilization of women in the labour force would be much higher.

In addition to the high unemployment rate of women, there are other disturbing rigidities. In the past, women were concentrated in poorly paid occupations. There has been little change in this pattern, as the majority of new female workers are finding jobs in these same low-status female-stereotyped occupations. Concomitant with this, the earnings gap between women and men has widened rather than narrowed, and the ratio of female to male earnings has improved only minimally. Whereas in 1969 the average earnings of women were \$3,420 lower than the average earnings of men, by 1977 the difference had increased to \$6,594. Although many factors contribute to this differential besides outright discrimination, these figures are a shorthand method of showing that the underlying situation has, for all practical purposes, not improved.

This is a matter of great concern to a society which espouses equality for women and has been investing money and effort in this pursuit. Our concern must go beyond simply casting about for the guilty parties, or dismissing the underlying situation as the responsibility of women, the home, the government, business, and educational institutions to change. The situation is too complex. The present status of women forms one of the bases of our society, our institutions and even the programs designed to improve their status. This study tries to shed some light on these issues.

Women form a complex, non-homogeneous group. This group includes individuals of varied ages, ethnic groups, incomes, education, work experience, life patterns, goals and needs. Nonetheless, women as a group, when set in contrast to men, are characterized in our society by some striking features. Some of these are relevant to the formulation of an employment strategy for women.

The most striking characteristics in this regard arise from women's role as homemaker. Historically there has been a marked division of labour between men and women with women bearing the major responsibility for care of the home and rearing of children, while men have been responsible for providing financial support for the family. This central assumption about the role of the sexes has heavily influenced their educational and employment aspirations, opportunities and attainments. In general, women were considered economic dependents of men and little emphasis was placed on preparing them for the labour market. This has been reflected by the broken pattern of women's labour market participation and by the low-paid sexually-segregated occupations in which the majority of women have been employed.

Response to the special needs of women arising from this situation, such as the requirements for retraining, greater flexibility of the workplace to accommodate family responsibilities of workers, and further development of societal institutions like daycare that help to equitably share these responsibilities, is essential to the improvement of women's position in the labour market. Since men have constituted the vast majority of the workforce in our technological society, the institution of "paid work" reflects the male ethos. Equality of opportunity in the workplace requires the workplace and its supporting institutions to change to reflect the female ethos as well.

Hence, it is evident that improving the labour market status of women is not a marginal problem that can be dealt with by marginal extensions of past solutions to the employment problems of men. It is both a challenging

and a radical undertaking requiring a major commitment of time, money, effort and creativity.

The scope of this study is small in relation to the magnitude and importance of its subject, given the constraints of data availability, time and finances. It is hoped that it will nonetheless be a contribution to an important area in which little formal research has been carried out or is publicly available. Without being an exhaustive study, it aims to provide new information and to facilitate further research in the area of employment policy and women.

The study is confined to the labour market policies under the jurisdiction of the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission (CEIC).¹ Although other government programs and policies are also important to women, they are discussed only when relevant to the central focus of this study.

The study is divided into three parts. The first part looks at historical employment creation patterns and suggests implications of continuing traditional labour market policies in the future. In particular, the comparative role of the private and public sectors in creating employment opportunities is examined. The second part analyzes federal government employment programs and policies and their impact on women. Part three briefly explores employment strategies appropriate for women by looking at the special requirements of women in this regard, traditional and non-traditional solutions, future developments and other related societal concerns.

FOOTNOTES

1. In this paper the phrases labour market policies and programs or employment policies and programs are used to refer to those programs under the jurisdiction of Employment and Immigration Canada (with the exception of the Unemployment Insurance Program) which affect the labour market.

PART I
HISTORICAL EMPLOYMENT
PATTERNS

INTRODUCTION

In Part I of this study we examine the pattern of employment creation and unemployment in Canada, which forms a backdrop to the labour market programs and policies analyzed later. First, the employment generation that has occurred is examined to determine its source and how it relates to employment demands in the past. Second, the number and characteristics of jobs created by the private and public sectors are analyzed. Particular emphasis is placed on the experience of women. The final question addressed is whether the nature of unemployment has been changing in such a way as to reduce the effectiveness of traditional employment policies aimed at cyclical stabilization.

Most of the analysis is performed for the years 1966 to 1978. This choice was made since the best consistent source of employment-related data differentiated by the public and private sectors was available only for these years. Also, since there is some evidence that the trend to higher unemployment may have begun as early as 1966 in Canada, this time span is appropriate for studying this problem. Statistics on the public and private sectors in this study are derived from unpublished data from the Labour Force Survey on class of worker by industry. Public-sector employment includes all paid government business workers and paid government non-business workers. These consist of individuals who worked for the industry public administration and individuals who worked for publicly owned enterprises in other industries. Hence, included are enterprises such as the CBC, Air Canada, Crown corporations, hospitals, the post office, regulatory bodies and government departments. All other individuals are considered part of the private sector. Information from the 1951, 1961 and 1971 Censuses and the Survey of Consumer Finances has also been utilized.

CHAPTER 1

JOB CREATION BY THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS

Public and Private Sector Employment Creation

In this chapter we will examine the employment creation of the public and private sectors. Between 1966 and 1978, employment grew by 2.7% per year,^{1.1} resulting in the estimated addition of 2,703,000 jobs. However, the labour force grew at the even faster rate of 3.1% per annum, bringing an estimated 3,305,000 more people into the labour market, or 1.2 times the number of additional jobs. As a result the unemployment rate increased by 5 percentage points over this period. The large increase in the labour force was not primarily a result of growth in the source population, which only grew by 2.4% per year over the period, but rather the large increase in the participation rate of Canadians, most spectacularly women. (See Appendix II, Table 1.)

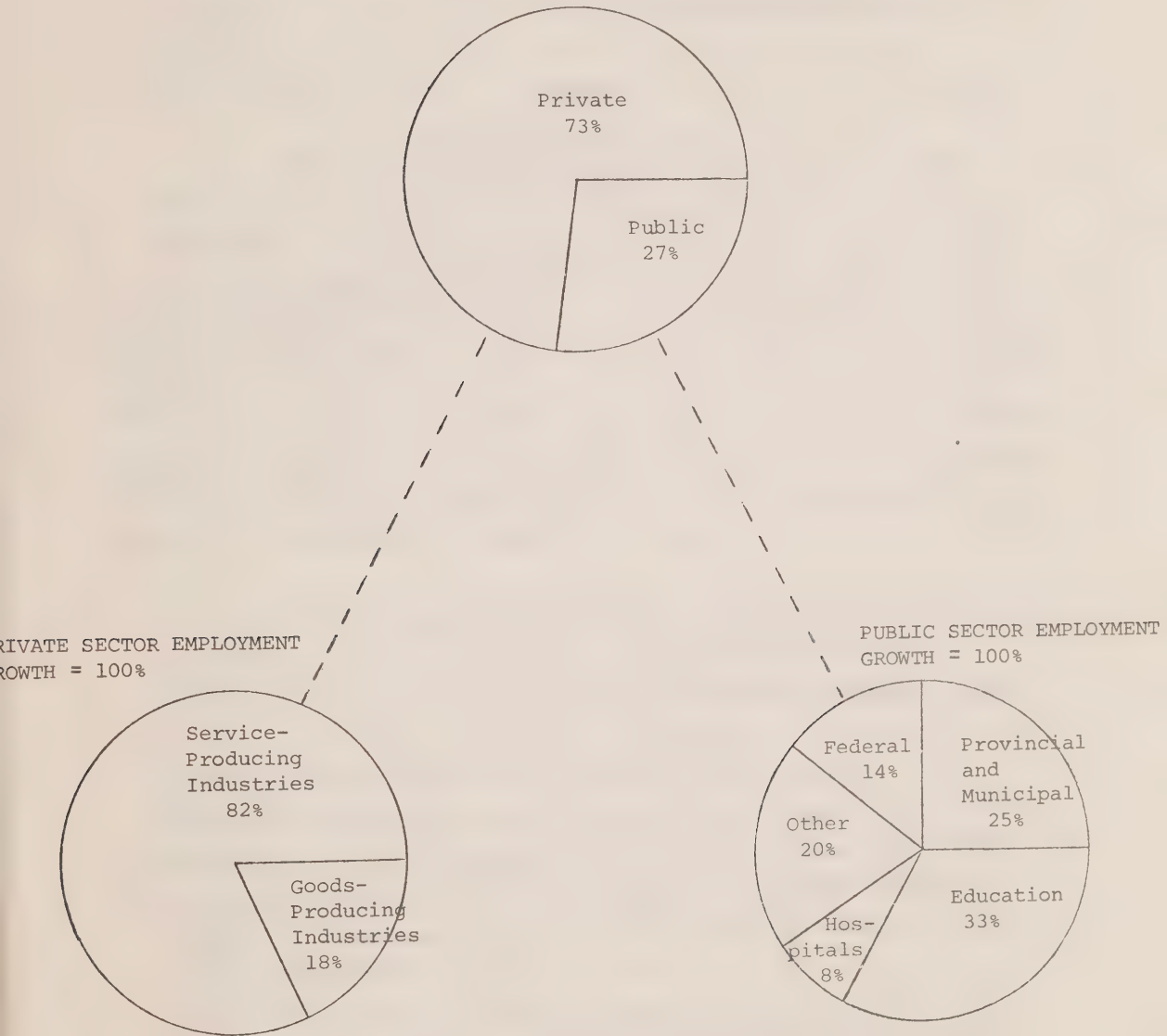
The most striking feature of industrial employment growth over the past 13 years has been its reliance on the private service sector and on public sector growth. Together they have accounted for 87% of total employment growth in the period 1966 to 1978.

During this period total private sector employment only grew at an average annual rate of 2.5%, while public sector employment growth outstripped it, growing by 3.9% per annum or .8% faster than the labour force (see Table I). Hence, although private sector employment was 83% of all employment in 1966, it only accounted for 73.1% of employment growth between 1966 and 1978. (See Chart I.) Correspondingly, public sector employment, which was only 17% of

CHART I

PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECTOR
EMPLOYMENT GROWTH* IN CANADA
1966-1978

TOTAL EMPLOYMENT GROWTH = 100%



Contributions to Growth

total employment in 1966, accounted for 26.9% of employment growth in this period. Of the estimated 2,703,000 net jobs created, 2,009,000 were in the service sector, while 694,000 were in the public sector.

TABLE I

PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECTOR
EMPLOYMENT GROWTH
1966-1978*

Sector	Growth Rate (%)	Contribution To Growth (%)	Change (1978 - 1966) (000's)	Revised Distribution 1966 (%)	Distribution 1978 (%)
Private	2.5	73.1	2,009	83.0	80.6
Public	3.9	26.9	694	17.0	19.4
Total	2.7	100.0	2,703	100.0	100.0

Source: Labour Force Survey, Statistics Canada
Unpublished Data

Notes: *Based on revised data. See Footnote 1.1.

In the period 1966 to 1978 private sector employment growth was dependent on the service producing industries. The service producing industries accounted for 82% of all private sector employment growth. The industries which grew at least as fast as the labour force were wholesale trade (3.9%), service (4.3%), finance (4.4%) and public utilities (4.7%). Employment in all of the non-service industries grew less rapidly than the labour force. Manufacturing, which accounted for 28% of employment in 1966, grew slowly by 1.2% per annum, and hence only contributed 12.4% of total private sector employment growth. (See Appendix II, Table 2).

The growth in government employment appears large in relation to overall private sector growth. However, it was actually commensurate with the growth in employment in the private sector service industries. And indeed, this is the appropriate comparison, since most government employees are engaged in providing services.

Provincial and municipal government administration, and government education were the fastest growing components of public sector employment, with annual average growth rates of 4.6% and 4.5% respectively. Together they accounted for 58.8% of the growth in government employment. Despite the political sensitivity over federal government growth, it only grew at 3.7% per year and accounted for just 13.5% of the growth in government employment. From Table 3, Appendix II it can be seen that curtailed growth in education alone would impact heavily on employment growth in the public sector.

In conclusion, employment growth over the period 1966-1978 was based on private service sector and public sector growth, while primary and secondary industrial employment grew more slowly than the labour force. Given the present dislike of "big" government, it is likely that government employment growth will continue to be curtailed in the future. Unless there is a concomitant increase in the service growth or revival of primary and secondary industrial growth, this will greatly exacerbate the unemployment problem.

In addressing the question of the capacity of the private sector to expand to compensate for this, it is interesting to note that if the government sector had not grown at all between 1966 and 1978, the private sector

would have had to create 694,000 more jobs. This is 35% of the net increase in private sector jobs or 41% of additional private sector jobs in the service producing industries between 1966 and 1978.

Public and Private Sector Job Creation and Women

Now let us re-examine the employment situation over the period 1966 to 1978, looking at the experience of women (see Appendix II, Table 4). This period was characterized by rapid growth of participation rates of women and hence in the female labour force. The growth in the female labour force of 4.9% per annum outstripped their employment growth of 4.4% per annum. This resulted in an estimated 11.6% per annum growth in unemployed women, and 5 percentage points increase in their unemployment rate over the period.

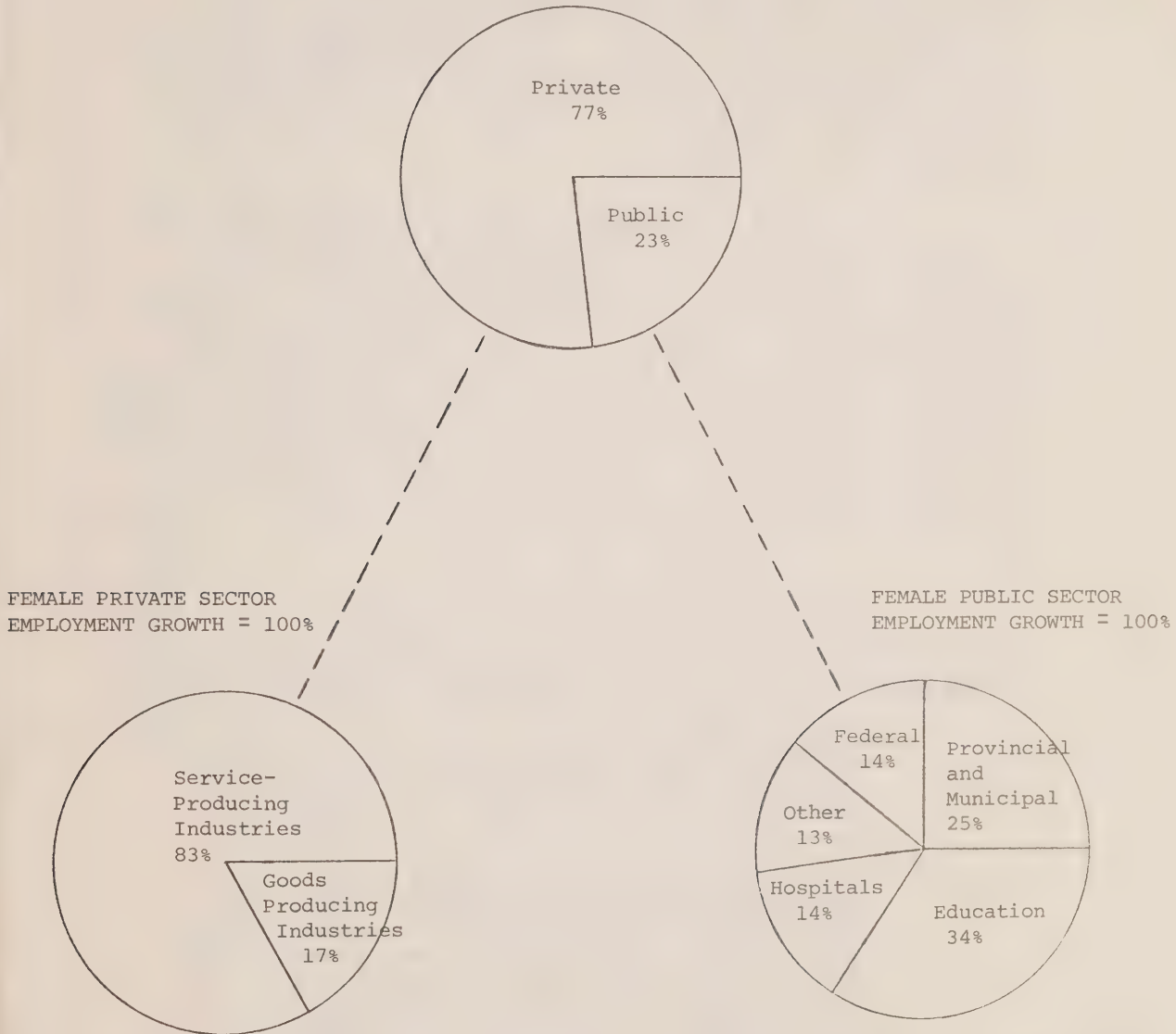
In comparison, the situation for men was not as dramatic. The growth in employment of men was only 1.9% per annum over the period. The male labour force grew more slowly than the female labour force, only 2.2% per annum and male unemployment grew at a slower rate than female unemployment. This comparison clearly shows that improving the employment situation of women is a focal point in any resolution of our unemployment problem. Providing employment for the influx of women needing jobs is one of the primary challenges facing our economy.

Chart II compares how different sectors of the economy have performed with respect to job creation for women. Female employment in the private sector grew at 4.3% per year while female public sector employment grew

CHART II

FEMALE PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECTOR
EMPLOYMENT GROWTH* IN CANADA
1966-1978

TOTAL FEMALE EMPLOYMENT GROWTH = 100%



*Contributions to Growth

at 5.0%. The former accounted for 77% of the total growth in female employment over the period, while the latter accounted for 23%. The private sector contributed more to the employment growth of women than of men. (See Table II). The rapid growth of service-producing industries was responsible for absorbing 83% of the net increase in female workers in the private sector. (For more details see Appendix II, Table 5.)

In the public sector, education, provincial and municipal government administration accounted for the majority (58.8%) of female employment growth as it did for men (See Appendix II, Table 6). One important difference was that government hospitals were a much more significant source of public sector employment growth for women than for men. Curtailment of this industry will impact particularly adversely on women, who were 77% of all government hospital workers in 1978.

The relationship between the growth of the service sector and the employment of women is too striking to be passed over. In The Double Ghetto the authors state:

Although some women have always worked outside the home, women's participation in the industrial sector has been much more responsive to the need of employers and to the demands of the home ...

Many women, especially married women, have formed a reserve army of labour, taking paid jobs when new industries and occupations were being created, when men were off fighting wars, when the business cycle was peaking, when seasonal or part-time work was available. At other stages of capitalist development, in peacetime, and at other points of time in the decade, the year or the day, they have melted back into the home.^{1.2}

TABLE II

PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECTOR
EMPLOYMENT GROWTH FEMALES
1966-1978*

Sector	Growth Rate (%)	Contribution To Growth (%)	Change 1978- 1966 (000's)	Revised Distribution 1966 (%)	Distribution 1978 (%)	% Females 1978	Change in % Females 1978-1966
Private	4.3	77.0	1,219	80.9	79.7	37.9	7.5
Public	5.0	23.0	341	19.1	20.3	40.1	5.0
Total	4.4	100.0	1,560	100.0	100.0	38.3	7.1

Source: Labour Force Survey, Statistics Canada
Unpublished Data

Notes: *Based on revised data. See Footnote 1.1

The rapid growth of the service sector is exactly one of the situations described above. Certainly, service sector growth has been dependent on the utilization of the resources provided by women entering the labour force. Whether women's need for paid employment has been subservient to the needs of the service sector, or whether the two have been mutually supporting, the increased employment of women has really meant that more women are working in low-paying, sex-stereotyped jobs in the service sector. However, given the sociological and economic changes that have taken place, it is unlikely that women will disappear quietly into the home when their resources are no longer required as they did in the past. The prospect of continued high labour force participation of women combined with public sector cutbacks and a gloomy economic outlook is likely to put severe strains on the private sector's job creation abilities.

In summary, improving the employment situation of women is central to resolving our unemployment problem. However, employment growth in the recent past was not strong enough to meet job demands of either men or women, even though the period analyzed was characterized by strong growth in the service industries and the public sector. If the latter is curtailed in the future, it is difficult to see how the private sector could meet the employment demands of Canadians.

FOOTNOTES

- 1.1 All average annual growth rates are based on log linear trend estimations. The contribution to growth of a variable is defined by the difference between its estimated (by log linear regression) values in 1966 and 1978. This estimation takes all the intervening years into account too and prevents unrepresentative values for 1966 or 1978 from unduly influencing the results.

Unless otherwise indicated, all results derived from the Labour Force Survey are based on data which has been adjusted to take account of the discontinuity in the survey in 1975. In 1975, the new Labour Force Survey replaced the old one. The new and old survey were run in parallel for 1975 to provide a basis for comparing them. This information was used in order to render the data usable for analysis over time in the following way:

- for each year before 1975, data from the old Labour Force Survey was multiplied by the 1975 ratio of its new survey estimate to its old survey estimate.

This is similar to the method of adjustment used by the Labour Force Survey Division, Statistics Canada, except that they perform the adjustment on a monthly instead of annual basis.

It should be noted that the adjusted data gives quite different results than the old survey.

In particular, as a result of the revisions in the survey to make it more accurate, the female labour force estimates significantly increased and the male labour force estimates decreased somewhat. When the data from the old survey was adjusted as described above, the same effect was carried into the past.

The main assumption involved in using this adjustment ratio is that if the new survey had been in effect before 1975, the relationship of its estimates to the old survey estimates would be the same as for 1975. The validity of this assumption is weaker the further back in time it is carried.

FOOTNOTES

- 1.2 Armstrong, Pat and Armstrong, Hugh. The Double Ghetto Canadian Women and Their Segregated Work, p. 18.

CHAPTER 2

CHARACTERISTICS OF NEW JOBS

The rapid growth in female employment in the past decade paints a picture of false optimism regarding the economic situation of women. When one examines women's incomes and the kinds of jobs in which women are finding employment, the picture is bleak.

Earnings of Women and Men

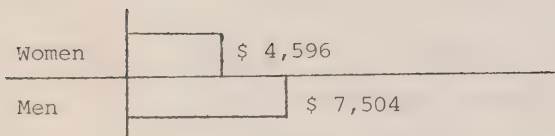
The earnings gap between men and women has been increasing since 1969 in both the public and private sectors. In 1969, on average, women earned \$3,293, while men earned \$6,713 - a difference of \$3,420. By 1977, on average, women earned \$7,462 while men earned \$14,056. Thus the difference between male and female average earnings had risen to \$6,594. In 1969 women earned only 49% as much as men and by 1977 this had improved only slightly to 53%. This increase was due to the non-government sector. (See Chart III and Appendix II, Table 7).

Government sector jobs have remained nonetheless more remunerative than non-government jobs, particularly for women. In 1977, male non-government workers earned 80% as much as their male government counterparts, while female non-government workers earned only 68% as much as female government workers.

The above comparison of earnings of men and women represents a composite of many considerations which define the different working situations of the two sexes. Studies have shown that many factors contribute to the difference

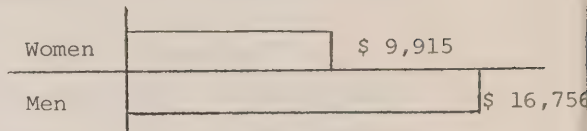
CHART III
AVERAGE EARNINGS OF WOMEN AND MEN
1969 AND 1977

1969

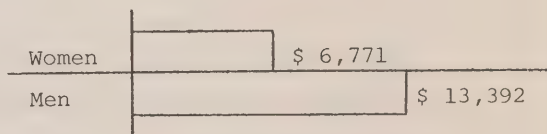
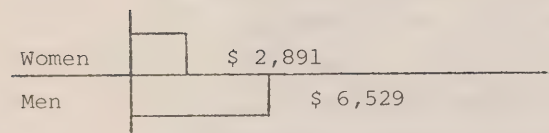


PUBLIC SECTOR

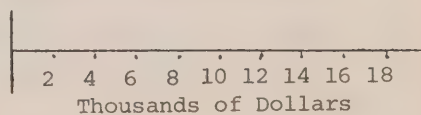
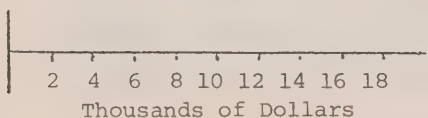
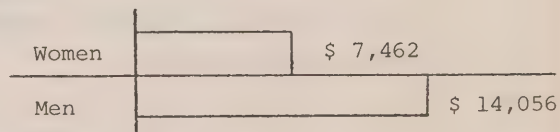
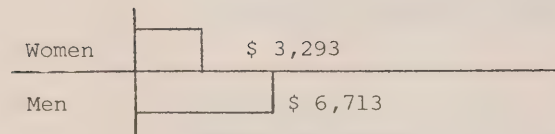
1977



PRIVATE SECTOR



BOTH SECTORS



between male and female earnings, such as differences in work year, occupation and industry of employment, education and years of service. Yet even after such factors have been taken into account, there remains a sizeable gap which cannot be accounted for by these criteria alone.^{2.1}

Furthermore, the real gap between the compensation of women and men is even greater when fringe benefits, which are often tied to earnings, are included.

The fact that the difference between male and female earnings has not been improving is a serious comment on present equal pay and equal opportunity legislation, public and private sector hiring and promotion decisions and government labour market policies.

Occupational Distribution of New Workers

The concentration of women in low-paying occupations accounts for a sizeable part of the earnings gap between women and men. For full-time workers, it has been estimated by other researchers to account for as much as half of the difference in male-female earnings.^{2.2} This makes the occupational distribution of women a prime target for corrective labour market policies.

The increase in the female workforce has reinforced this problem. Slightly more than half of the net increase in the number of experienced female workers between 1961 and 1971 was confined to only ten occupations (out of the more than 200 possible occupational codes). (See Appendix II Table 8). These occupations were already characterized by a high concentration and segregation of female workers. By 1971 these ten occupations alone accounted for 53% of the

total female workforce. Moreover the ratio of women to all workers was approximately twice as high in these ten occupations when considered as a group than in the whole economy. In fact 71% of the workforce in this group were women in 1971.

The ten occupations with the greatest increases for men, accounted for 42% of the net change in the male workforce between 1961 and 1971. In contrast, to the concentrated pattern for women, only 28% of the male workforce were in these ten occupations in 1971. (See Appendix II, Table 9).

Earnings and Occupational Distribution of Women and Men

For the total economy, female full-time full-year workers earned \$3,871 less than their male counterparts, or only 57% as much in 1970. For all of the ten occupations with the greatest growth in workforce for each sex, the average employment income of men significantly exceeded that of women. Even in an occupation composed primarily of women, such as bookkeepers and cashiers, women earned only 70% as much as men. Furthermore, for women, their ten leading occupations were poorly paid, even by the standards of women's incomes. In eight of the ten, the average employment income of women was lower than their average for all occupations. (See Appendix II, Tables 8 and 9).

In The Double Ghetto, the authors examine long-term trends in male and female industrial and occupational distributions. They find: "that the segregation of women in specific industries and occupations characterized by low pay, low skill requirements, low productivity and low prospects for advancement has shown remarkable stability

throughout this century".^{2.3} Using data from the 1941, 1951, 1961 and 1971 Censuses they conclude:^{2.4}

- women continue to be concentrated in a limited number of jobs;
- the female sex-typing of these jobs may even have increased;
- the percentage of workers that were female dropped for the only two professional occupations that were significant (in terms of numbers) for women workers - school teachers, and graduate nurses;
- the percentage of technical and professional jobs filled by women has remained close to 45% between 1941 and 1971; and
- the percentage of all female workers in these occupations remained close to 15% over the period. Two-thirds of the women in this category were teachers or nurses.
- women's work is characterized by low skill levels, little opportunity for training or advancement, low wages and low prestige. Furthermore, the nature of this work often parallels the work they perform in the home.

In summary, the majority of the increase in the female workforce has taken place in relatively few occupations, all of which are low-paid and sex-stereotyped, reinforcing the already severe, long-standing problems of this nature.

FOOTNOTES

- 2.1 Using 1961 Census data in The Female Worker in Canada, Sylvia Ostry estimated an "unexplained" earnings gap of 15 to 22 percent between male and female workers after occupational and major qualitative differences were taken into account.
- 2.2 Lynn MacDonald, "Wages of Work", pg. 1.
- 2.3 Armstrong and Armstrong, The Double Ghetto, pg. 20.
- 2.4 Ibid., pg. 34-36, pg. 50

CHAPTER 3

THE CHANGING NATURE OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Since 1966, Canada has experienced a continued unemployment problem at the same time as employment growth has increased. Unemployment is often regarded as resulting from three sources:

- 1) excess of the total number of people who want to work over the total number of available jobs, often referred to as cyclical unemployment;
- 2) unemployment resulting from the incompatibility between the qualifications and desires of those seeking employment and the kinds of jobs offered, or structural unemployment; and
- 3) unemployment resulting from the fact that the process of matching workers to available jobs takes a certain amount of time, or frictional unemployment

Different measures are necessary to combat each of these types of unemployment. A change in either the nature or the mix of these types of unemployment has implications for employment policy.

Evidence of Changing Nature of Unemployment

In recent years, there has been growing concern that the nature of unemployment is changing. One phenomenon pointing to this has been the coexistence of rising unemployment and employment growth. Comparing the unemployment rate with the annual percentage change in employment shows that both rose in eight of the past thirteen years. This resulted from even stronger growth in the labour force than in employment.

Between 1966 and 1978 the unemployment rate has made an almost unrelenting climb from 3.5% to 8.4%, adding an estimated 646,000 to the number of unemployed. Even if we consider the "natural" unemployment rate to be as high as 5%, the unemployment rate has been in excess of this since 1970.

Between 1966 and 1978 the percentage of the unemployed who were female rose from 42% (revised) to 44.8%, while the female unemployment rate rose by 5 percentage points to 9.6%. At the same time, the unemployment rate for men rose from 2.8% (revised) to 7.6%.

Another indication of the changing nature of unemployment has been the rising level of unemployment at cyclical peaks (or the "full-employment" unemployment rates). In A Medium Term Strategy for Employment and Manpower Policy, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) authors compared the unemployment rate for Canada in two peak years 1966 and 1973, using data adjusted to a common OECD standard. They found that this rate rose from 3.5% in 1966 to 5.6% in 1973. This worsening relationship between the unemployment rate and cyclical peaks, meant that each downturn began with a higher unemployment rate.^{3.1} Furthermore, long-duration unemployment has increased from 10 to 13 weeks between these peak years. The importance of this factor can be appreciated upon noting that it accounted for half of the total unemployment over the period.^{3.2}

The relationship between the level of unemployment and the proportion of unfilled vacancies has also changed. New jobs were no longer having as strong an effect in reducing

unemployment, but rather a greater proportion of new jobs were remaining unfilled.^{3.3} All these phenomena suggest that basic changes have occurred in the labour market.

Changes in the Labour Market

The most striking of these changes is the rapid labour force growth, mentioned above. An important component of this growth has been rapid increase in participation rates of some groups, resulting in a changing age-sex composition of the labour force. Whereas women were only 32% of the labour force in 1966, they were 39% by 1978. Because of the differing qualifications and needs of different groups in the labour force this change necessitates some major labour market re-adjustment. Like the reduced responsiveness of unemployment to rising vacancies, this suggests increasing mismatch between the skills and expectations of job seekers and the kind of jobs offered.

Other changes also point to difficulties of this nature. As demonstrated, industrial employment growth since 1966 depended heavily on private service sector and government growth. Concomitant to this, occupational growth has been in the professional, technical and clerical occupations at the expense of semi-skilled workers. Hence, the nature of the jobs being created has also been changing.

Problems With Measured Unemployment Figures

When discussing the nature of unemployment in Canada, it is important to keep in mind that measured unemployment does not represent the full dimensions of our problem. The problem is of greater magnitude than revealed simply by the

"officially unemployed" statistics.

A sizeable number of discouraged workers are excluded from our official labour force and unemployment estimates. These are people who would like to work but have given up their job search in discouragement and hence are not considered part of the officially unemployed on these grounds. Increases in employment opportunities will likely result in the re-entry of these individuals into the labour force. As a result, economic growth continues to perversely reveal the real magnitude of the unemployment problem, as measured unemployment expands at the same time.

As well as greatly underestimating the size of our unemployment problem, focusing on the measured global unemployment rate gives a slanted picture of its true nature.

As the OECD authors state:

Recorded unemployment is but one manifestation of the under-utilization of labour. Others include reductions in working hours, backflow of foreign workers, discouraged workers leaving the labour force, deteriorating human resources resulting from unused skills and a slowing down of productivity growth. If all these factors were taken into account, actual labour-market slack would seem to be much more severe than is indicated by recorded unemployment.^{3,4}

Information from the revised Labour Force Survey enables us to look at two aspects of under-utilization of the labour force for Canada - discouraged workers and those working part-time who really wished full-time employment. One partial estimate of discouraged workers is those persons who did not look for work in the reference week, because they believed no work was available, but had looked for work in the past six months. In 1978 there were 52,000

such individuals, 25,000 men and 28,000 women. This, of course, represents only part of the discouraged workers.

An estimate of those working part-time because they could only find part-time work is also available from the revised Labour Force Survey. In 1978, there were 198,000 individuals in this category, 61,000 men and 137,000 women.

These rough estimates show that under-utilization of the labour force is a significant problem in Canada. If yet other kinds of underemployment were also measured, the full extent of hidden unemployment would surface in mammoth proportions.

Furthermore, the global unemployment rate obscures the fact that some groups are hit harder by unemployment than others. For example, in 1978 young people in the labour force were 2.6 times as likely, and women 1.7 times as likely, to be unemployed as males aged 25 to 44.^{3.5} Unemployment of older workers is also a serious problem which is masked by their withdrawal from the labour force as discouraged workers. For all of these groups, the lost opportunity of employment today may have a permanent negative effect on their future employment prospects.

Inadequacies of Traditional Employment Policies

This analysis suggests that for a number of reasons traditional employment policies to expand the economy are not sufficient to solve our present and future employment problems. As we shall discuss in Part II, they lag behind the changing nature of unemployment. Programs to expand the economy have provided primarily short-term employment and have not taken into account the need for permanent job creation

which the above analysis suggests is becoming increasingly necessary. Our traditional employment policies have not adequately dealt with the problem of mismatch between job-seekers and jobs. Nor have they solved the problem of unemployment of specific groups, particularly those who are disadvantaged in the labour market.

FOOTNOTES

- 3.1 OECD, A Medium Term Strategy for Employment Manpower Policy, p. 15-16.
- 3.2 Ibid., p. 28
- 3.3 Ibid., p. 16
- 3.4 Ibid., p. 7
- 3.5 The likelihood or probability of a member of a group being unemployed is simply the unemployment rate of the group.

PART II
THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT LABOUR MARKET
PROGRAMS AND WOMEN

INTRODUCTION

On September 1, 1978, the then Minister of Employment and Immigration Canada (CEIC) Bud Cullen, announced the federal government's employment strategy for 1979-80. This strategy consisted of programs and policies to increase employment and improve the status of the Canadian labour force. He estimated it would cost the government \$710 million in 1979-80 and create 113,000 work-years of employment or equivalent. Since 1967 employment program expenditures (under the jurisdiction of CEIC) have totalled over 7 billion dollars. This represents only a part of the large sums of money the government spends that have far-reaching employment implications, such as Department of Regional Economic Expansion (DREE) grants, federal government contracts with private industry, and federal government employment itself.

Once the extent of the federal government's role in the labour market is realized, certain questions become critical to groups who are presently disadvantaged in the system: for whom are jobs being created?, to what effect are the federal dollars being spent? The purpose of this part of the study is to address itself to these questions, as they concern women. This is especially necessary for, despite the potential importance of the federal government's labour market policies to women, little information and few studies on women's experience with these policies are publicly accessible.

CHAPTER 4

OVERVIEW OF LABOUR MARKET PROGRAMS AND POLICIES

The stated aim of federal labour market programs is to promote the realization of "the full productive potential of Canada's human resources".^{4.1} Under this mandate, a complex array of employment programs has been developed. Employment policy expenditures have grown from \$389 million in 1967-68 to \$1,122 million in 1977-78. At the same time, the emphasis of employment programs has changed somewhat, and new programs have been added on ad hoc basis to respond to political and economic events.^{4.2}

Today, the programs can be divided into the following major types:

- . employment services
- . training
- . mobility
- . wage subsidies
- . programs for youth
- . programs for other special clients.

These program areas are described briefly below. For a detailed description of selected programs, refer to Appendix I.

Description of Employment Programs

1. Employment Services

Through Canada Employment Centres (CEC), CEIC provides a wide range of labour market services, such as information on available jobs, counselling clients on employment-related matters, counselling of special-needs

groups, special services for students, referral to training and referral and placement in jobs.

2. Training Programs

The Canada Manpower Training Program has an institutional and an industrial component. Under the Institutional Program, training courses such as language training and occupational skill training are provided in colleges and vocational schools. Under the Industrial Training Program, CEIC contracts with employers to assist them in the training of their employees by reimbursing the employers for a portion of direct training costs and trainee wages.

3. Mobility Programs

The Canada Manpower Mobility Program provides grants for the unemployed and under-employed to travel in search of employment or to relocate for employment.

4. Direct Job Creation Programs

Through programs which create new jobs directly, CEIC attempts to increase employment, improve the labour market position of the disadvantaged and contribute to community betterment.

5. Wage Subsidy Programs

These programs offer subsidies to employers in order to try to create incremental employment in the private sector, or to improve the employability of some groups.

6. Programs for Youth

Many of the programs described above are aimed at youth and provide employment counselling, placement, work experience and training for young people.

7. Other Special Client Needs Programs

CEIC extends existing programs and services and develops special programs to meet the needs of designated groups who experience difficulty using its regular services because of geographical or socio-economic reasons. In the past, designated groups have include native people, inmates, the physically and mentally handicapped, the labour force in isolated communities, and women.

Distribution of Funds Between Programs

Chart IV depicts the changing emphasis over time of the three largest programs - training, job creation and employment services. This chart shows the growing importance of direct job creation programs in the arsenal of employment policies up to 1978. In 1979 another important shift has occurred - the increasing reliance on wage subsidies or tax credits for the private sector, instead of direct job creation programs, to expand employment. If the 1980 Conservative budget had not been defeated a tax credit program, the Private Employment Incentives Program, would have been the major element in their employment strategy, replacing a number of direct job creation programs. The rise in popularity of wage subsidies, compared to direct job creation programs, has been a result of a number of phenomena: concern with the size of the public sector, desire to boost the private sector and; desire to relegate responsibility for employment creation to the private sector. Later in Part II, the relative merits of these two expansionary tools will be considered.

For a detailed account of employment expenditures in Canada from 1967-68 to 1977-78, see Appendix II, Table 10.

CHART IV

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MANPOWER FUNDS
IN CANADA, SELECTED YEARS,
1967-68 TO 1977-78



Source: Reprinted from New Directions in Manpower Policy, p. 4; revised to include actual data for 1976, 1977 and 1978. 1977 and 1978 financial data differ somewhat from earlier years. See Notes for Table 10, Appendix IV.

Notes: ^a Other includes planning, development, and research and miscellaneous, excluding Municipal Winter Works Incentive Program.

^b Job creation includes expenditures under the Municipal Winter Works Incentive Program.

CEIC Initiatives for Women

Federal employment programs have rarely had the goal of improving the position of women per se. However, the employment problems of women have aroused increasing public concern. This pressure has resulted, on the part of Employment and Immigration Canada, in a growing awareness of its role with respect to women.

In the mid 1970's CEIC formed a Women's Employment Division and developed a policy regarding women's employment. In 1977-78, CEIC issued a policy statement on women's employment, with the following mandate:

To actively promote the development of labour market conditions in which the economic potential of the female labour force is fully tapped and to support women workers in their pursuit of economically viable and self-fulfilling employment.^{4.3}

Twelve coordinators of women's employment in the regions and a small staff in Ottawa were put in place to develop a plan of action. CEIC developed its first plan of action related to women's employment for 1977-78. This has been followed by subsequent annual plans of action.

Progress in increasing women's participation in the programs has been slow. Table III compares women's participation in selected labour market programs from 1976-77 to 1978-79. It shows that, on the whole, the participation of women is lower than might be reasonably expected (compared to the percentage of the unemployed who were female - 45% in 1978) and improvement in a quantitative sense has been minimal. Later in the study, qualitative problems of women's participation in the programs are discussed.

TABLE III

FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN LABOUR MARKET PROGRAMS
BY PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL PARTICIPANTS IN EACH PROGRAM
1976-77; 1977-78; 1978-79

	<u>CANADA</u>		
	<u>76-77</u>	<u>77-78</u>	<u>78-79</u>
Canada Manpower Centre (CMC) - Canada Employment Centre (CEC) Registrations	39.9	40.0	41.0
Placements - Regular	36.4	37.0	38.0
- Casual	16.0	16.0	15.0
Canada Manpower Training Pro- gram - Institutional (CMTP) Total	32.9	31.9	33.0
Canada Manpower Industrial Training Program (CMITP) Total	27.4	28.3	29.0
Outreach (% of projects with Female Target Group)	11.9	9.0	-
Student Summer Employment Assistance (SSEAP) Paid Participants	35.1	41.2	-
Local Initiatives Program (LIP)	39.1	-	-
Canada Works*	-	31.0	31.0
Young Canada Works	-	52.0	-

Source: CEIC Annual Report for fiscal year 1977-1978, Appendix 7;
data for 1978-79 was obtained by author from CEIC.

Notes: *Data for Canada Works is preliminary for 77-78 and
based on 40% sample. 78-79 data is based on 60% sample.

The rest of Part II examines the three areas of training, direct job creation and wage subsidy programs, to evaluate their effectiveness for women.

Although programs such as Outreach and the operation of the Canada Employment Centres (CEC's) are of great importance to women, a detailed analysis of them is not attempted in this study. A more detailed analysis of these other aspects of labour market strategies and policies should be the subject of a future study.

FOOTNOTES

- 4.1 CEIC. Annual Report for the Fiscal Year 1978-1979.
P. XIV.
- 4.2 Goldman, B., New Directions for Manpower Policy. P. 2.
- 4.3 CEIC. Annual Report for the Fiscal Year 1977-1978.
P. 8.

CHAPTER 5

TRAINING PROGRAMS AND WOMEN

Structure of Training Programs

Training is an essential part of the federal government's labour market policy. Under the Adult Occupational Training Act (1967, 1972) a network of training programs that focus on the employment problems of adults is carried out. Chart V depicts the structures of these programs and describes them briefly. In Appendix I the programs are described in more detail. As illustrated, the institutional training program and the industrial training program are the two major components. The former consists of six types of classroom training and operates through federal purchases from the provinces for training provided in schools and community colleges. Under the latter program, the federal government contracts with employers to assist them in training their employees by reimbursing a portion of direct training costs and trainee wages.

General Criticisms of Training Programs

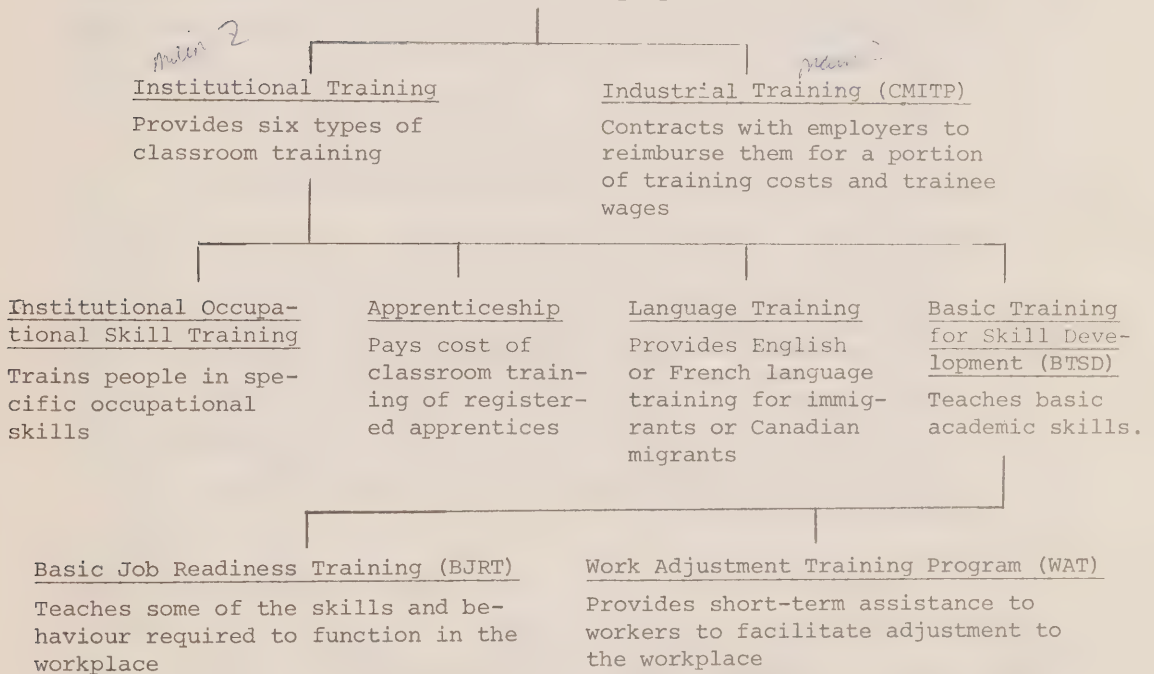
Training, with its potential to change the pernicious concentration and segregation of women in low-paying sex-stereotyped occupations and to provide retraining for women re-entering the labour force, could be a particularly important vehicle for improving the position of women. However, this has not been a particular objective of the training programs nor, as we shall see, on the whole have they been operating in this way. Furthermore, some serious weaknesses have reduced the effectiveness of these programs for men as well as for women.

CHART V

STRUCTURE OF FEDERAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

Adult Occupational Training Act

To provide "any occupational training course that will ... increase (his) capacity or opportunities for employment"



These weaknesses were summarized in the C. D. Howe study, New Directions for Manpower Policy:^{5.1}

The Canadian network of training programs suffers from a number of weaknesses, some of which can be remedied by improvement in the design and the operation of programs while others require more basic changes in institutional structures:

- Too little emphasis on on-the-job training or industrial training and on apprenticeships where people can acquire real experience in the working world. The present mix of training programs heavily oriented towards classroom training does not reflect the training needs of many occupations.
- Poor matching of the type and the number of training seats with the job opportunities, with the result that graduates are often unable to make use of the training financed by the state.
- Rigid planning processes created by an artificial distinction between training and education as a result of jurisdictional conflicts between the federal government and the provinces. The separate powers provided for in the constitution may prevent a complete linkage between education and training (for example, work-study programs), although there is far more scope for coordination than these governments now admit.

The joint evaluation of the Canada Manpower Training Program undertaken by the Department of Manpower and Immigration and the Treasury Board Secretariat (CEIC - TB) in 1976 also dealt with these problems. Poor matching of training with job opportunities in the institutional program was found to be a major source of concern by these evaluators and indications are that this criticism still holds true. Predicting the skills needed in the labour market is not a simple task and rigidities in the program (as mentioned in the C.D. Howe study) have

accentuated this problem. For example, the CEIC-TB evaluators found that occupational skill training was concentrated in a small number of low skill occupations, with almost one-quarter of skill trainees in 1974-75 enrolled in clerical and related occupations.^{5.2} In 1977-78 this occupational group still accounted for 24 percent of skill trainees.^{5.3} In fact, the occupational distribution of full-time skill trainees has changed little between 1974-75 and 1977-78 (see Appendix II, Table 11).

Moreover, about one-third of training in 1975 was in occupations for which there was little or no excess demand over the period 1971 to 1975.^{5.4} Finally, CEIC-TB had evidence that suggests most skill trainees used their skills very little or not at all.^{5.5}

The CEIC-TB evaluators found that, although industrial training was potentially suited to providing more highly-skilled training, it was unlikely that this was taking place. Seventy-eight percent of industrial trainees were concentrated in seven occupational groups in 1974-75: clerical and related; sales; service; processing; machinery and related; product fabricating, etc; and construction.^{5.6} In 1977-78, 77 % of trainees were still found in these groups.^{5.7} Nonetheless, in occupational terms, industrial training was more sensitive to labour market requirements than institutional training.^{5.8}

In an attempt to respond to these and other criticisms and to make the training programs more relevant, CEIC has been revamping their programs. The lower levels of Basic Training for Skill Development Program (BTSD) are being phased out and the program is being geared towards prerequisite training for entry into occupational skill training programs. However,

unless the occupational skill training program is considerably improved, the benefits of this can be questioned.

The Critical Trades Skills Shortages Training Program was developed to provide support to industry for high-cost training of persons in trades with critical shortages. Although in theory this is a positive move, evidence of how this program is operating in practice is necessary in order to evaluate it. This is particularly true since the 5.9 million dollars allocated for it in 1979-80 and the 19.5 million dollars (initial estimate) allocated in 1980-81 seem inadequate for the task. (In comparison, 553 million dollars were spent on all federal training programs in 1978-79.) In addition, other difficulties may impair its effectiveness, such as federal-provincial problems. For example, acceptance of the program by provincial governments, which is necessary for its success, may not be forthcoming.

The criteria for training fund allocation have been revised to try to direct institutional training funds above the minimum guaranteed to the provinces to regions with employment growth. However, since this change operates for additional funds above the minimum guarantees only, it does not affect the bulk of institutional training expenditures. Nor does it ensure that training will be provided in occupations for which jobs are available.

Hence, these efforts to improve the training programs are not sufficient, and the criticisms cited above remain largely true.

Participation of Women in Training Programs

Analysis of the characteristics of trainees in 1978-79 sheds more light on how these programs are serving women now. (Statistics for the institutional program are available for full-time trainees only; industrial training data are based on a representative sample.) Chart 1 in Appendix II shows the relative size of the programs by depicting the distribution of training expenditures in 1977-78. In 1978-79, women represented approximately 33% of all full-time institutional trainees started, while men represented about 67%. Only 29% of all industrial trainees started were women. (See Appendix II, Table 12.)

The basic requirements for eligibility for training are that the individual be an "adult" who is likely to benefit from training in terms of increased employment or earnings potential in the opinion of the CEC Counsellor.^{5.9} Given these broad eligibility criteria, participation of women in these programs can be compared broadly to their participation in various facets of the labour market. Women were 51% of the source population, 39% of the labour force, and 45% of the unemployed in 1978, all greater than their overall representation in the institutional and industrial training programs. Hence, overall, women were under-represented in the training programs.

The percentages quoted above obscure the fact that women had a better representation in programs over which the federal government had maximum control. In these programs (i.e. all institutional training programs except the apprenticeship program), women were 48% of all participants.

In the apprenticeship program, CEIC purchases the classroom portion of training and pays apprentices' allowances

or unemployment insurance during the classroom portion of training, but control of apprentices is exercised by the provinces and unions. In this program, the second largest institutional program accounting for 32% of trainees started in 1978-79, only 3% of apprenticeship trainees were women.

The industrial training program, in which the decision to train women rests finally with the employer, the proportion of female trainees was only three-fifths of that in the programs under federal control.

Although the institutional training programs (excluding the apprenticeship program) have had a higher percentage of female trainees, the serious shortcomings of these programs as discussed above reduce their actual benefits for women. In the apprenticeship and industrial training programs which are more responsive to labour market conditions, there is probably greater potential for the federal government to improve the participation of women than is presently admitted.

With respect to the apprenticeship program, a more serious commitment on the part of the federal government to increase the participation of women above a scandalous 3% of apprenticeship trainees is necessary.

With respect to industrial training, measures to ensure adequate participation of women in this program, such as linking of training contracts to the training of women, need to be taken.

It is no longer satisfactory for the federal government to passively accept the expenditure of large sums of its money for training programs in which women are so poorly represented.

As shown in Table IV, women's representation in the institutional program was lowest in the larger and more strictly job-related programs - apprenticeship and skill training - while it was the highest in the smaller programs of an indirect preparatory nature - Basic Job Readiness Training and Language Training. Although the higher percentage of women in courses of a preparatory nature may partially be an expression of the needs of re-entry and immigrant women, increased representation in effective job-related training programs is very important to all women.

The percentage of full-time institutional trainees and of industrial trainees started who were women has remained almost constant over the period 1975-79 (see Appendix II, Table 12). The only notable improvement was a fairly small increase in the proportion of women in the Skill Training Program. However, as will be discussed later in this chapter, the majority of the women in this program were trained in sex-typed occupations.

Since the increased percentage of women in the labour force may well indicate an increased demand for training of women, the relatively constant representation of women in these training programs probably represents a decline relative to the demand. This suggests that the numerical representation of women in the training programs has not really been improving over time.

Besides the inadequate representation of women in terms of numbers, the structure and content of the training programs are generally based on the needs of men and are inappropriate for women. For example, Basic Job Readiness Training (which teaches skills to improve functioning in a work environment) concentrates mostly on typical male difficulties such

TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF INSTITUTIONAL (FULL-TIME) AND INDUSTRIAL
TRAINEES STARTED, BY SEX OF TRAINEE
1978-1979

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
	Percentage of all female trainees	Percentage in program who are female	Percentage of all male trainees	Percentage in program who are male	Percentage of all trainees	Percentage in program, both sexes
Skill	51	42	35	58	40	100
Language	6	55	2	45	4	100
Basic Train- ing for Skill Development (BTSD)	31	54	13	46	19	100
Basic Job Readiness Training (JRT)	8	61	3	39	4	100
Work Adjust- ment Train- ing (WAT)	1	44	1	56	1	100
Apprentice- ship	3	3	46	97	32	100
Total In- stitutional (Full-Time)	100	33	100	67	100	100
Total In- dustrial	-	29	-	71	-	100

Source: Unpublished data compiled for author by Employment Training Branch, CEIC

as overly aggressive behaviour, rather than female difficulties such as unassertiveness and lack of confidence. The effectiveness of the training programs for women are also reduced by the general unavailability of guidance and counselling throughout training to help women readjust to a classroom situation and deal with family and course-related problems.^{5.10} The above, in conjunction with many other ways in which the training programs fail to take the needs of women into account (which will be discussed subsequently) - such as the scarcity of part-time training courses, the ineligibility of part-time trainees for training allowances, and changes in the training allowance structure that penalize women - indicate that a serious re-thinking of the training programs is necessary.

Training Allowances and Women

Full-time institutional trainees are eligible for training allowances which vary according to their status, number of dependents, distance from training centre and geographic location. Recent changes in the structure of these allowances have been a case of a half-step forward accompanied by two steps backward.

The federal government's Plan of Action on the Status of Women committed CEIC to investigate increasing training allowances to cover the costs of day care.^{5.11} In August 1979 this resulted in the introduction of a dependent care allowance of \$10 per week per dependent (up to a maximum of \$40 per week). This allowance is a pittance compared to the cost of child care and will not go far in making this training accessible to people with dependents.

As well, the dependent care allowance was preceded by a reduction in training allowances from \$45 to \$10 a week for those living with a parent or a working spouse, as part of the federal government's fiscal restraint program. Clearly, the combined effect of these two measures left most women worse off than before.

The reduction in training allowances for those living with a working spouse made training prohibitive to many women. It is a backward step that ignores the autonomy of women and is based rather on the old premise that women are the responsibility of their husbands. It is also based on the false assumption that all men are willing to spend money on their wives' training and education. Many community colleges have found that sometimes even affluent women were not able to get money from the family budget for their education and training, even when money was easily forthcoming for entertainment and recreational trips. Not surprisingly, following this reduction, there was a significant decline in female trainees (who were not funded by unemployment insurance).

Another feature of training allowances that is detrimental to women is the ineligibility of part-time trainees for allowances. This is based on the assumption that these trainees are working for pay when not in the courses and hence do not need the allowance. However, this is not true of many women with family responsibilities who need part-time training.

Job-Related Training Programs and Occupational Training

The majority of women work in relatively few poorly-paid sex-typed occupations. Ideally, training can be a vehicle to alter this pattern. Skill training and apprenticeship training in the institutional program, and training in the industrial program teach occupational-specific skills and as such could ideally provide necessary job-related training for women. However, an examination of the occupations in which women were trained in these programs in 1978-79 reveals an alarming, but perhaps not surprising, picture.

In spite of recent encouragement by CEIC of training of women in non-traditional occupations, training of women in the skill training program continues to follow the well-known pattern of occupational concentration and segregation (See Appendix II, Table 13.) Eight occupational groups accounted for 85% of all female skill trainees started in 1978-79, and these occupational groups consisted primarily of traditional female jobs. Over 50% of the women were trained in two occupational groups alone - stenographic and typing occupations and other clerical and related occupations (despite the fact that only 14% of female trainees gave these as their usual occupations). Over 90% of those trained in these two occupational groups were women.^{5.12} In comparison, the eight leading occupational groups for male skill trainees accounted for only 56% of these trainees.

In the apprenticeship training program, 74% of women were trained in one occupational group alone - personal service occupations (See Appendix II, Table 14). Although women were only 3% of all apprentices, they were nonetheless 85% of the personal service occupations' trainees. Only a few women are receiving training in non-traditional

occupations, as in the other construction trades and electrical power lighting and wire communications and equipment erecting, installing and repairing occupational groups.

As might be expected, industrial trainees were more widely distributed amongst occupational groups. (See Appendix II, Table 15.) Sixty-nine percent of the female trainees were trained in ten occupational groups, the majority of which were traditional women's areas. In comparison, only 33% of male industrial trainees were concentrated in the ten leading male occupational groups.

Hence, overall, women's experience in the Canada Manpower Training Programs parallels their experience in the labour market. Although a few women are receiving training of a non-traditional nature, the vast majority of them are receiving training that reinforces the pattern of women's occupational segregation and concentration in the work force. As discussed in Part I, this pattern is a fundamental part of women's continued disadvantaged economic position.

In view of anticipated labour shortages in many highly skilled occupations, the 1980's present a valuable opportunity to train women in non-traditional occupations. This opportunity will be lost unless the federal government is willing to undertake much stronger measures to ensure that a large proportion of these trainees are women and that the training is organized in a way which enables women to take advantage of it.

Strategies that merit consideration include setting minimum required levels for women's participation in courses (based on their participation in the labour force), providing

non-traditional training incentives for women to help compensate for the many additional barriers they must overcome, and providing incentives or penalties to industries to encourage them to train women in non-traditional occupations.

Characteristics of Trainees

Trainees tended to be young, single, relatively uneducated and without dependents. Institutional trainees were younger than the general population, with 46% of all female trainees and 57% of all male trainees under 25. Similarly, 46% of female and 49% of male industrial trainees were under 25 years old. (See Appendix II, Table 16.)

Forty-three percent of all female institutional trainees were single, compared to 63% of male trainees; and 43% of female industrial trainees were single, compared to 52% of male trainees. (See Appendix II, Table 17.)

The training programs have not been addressed to the highly educated, as evidenced by the fact that only 10% of institutional trainees and approximately 15% of industrial trainees of both sexes had more than Grade 12 education. (See Appendix II, Table 18.)

A very high proportion of female and male institutional trainees did not have any dependents (individuals wholly or substantially dependent on their income), 80% and 78% respectively. (See Appendix II, Table 19.) An even higher percentage of female industrial trainees, 83%, had no dependents; while a much lower percentage of males, 55%, were without dependents. Furthermore, the proportion of trainees without dependents has been increasing over time.

As previously discussed, the low level of training allowances, the lack of adequate compensation for day care costs and the ineligibility of part-time trainees for training allowances, as well as the lack of part-time training in many cities, are important factors contributing to the inaccessibility of these programs to individuals with dependents.

The above mix of trainees is of concern to women, given the employment problems of older women and women with dependents. Again, this points out that the programs need to be modified to render them accessible and relevant to such individuals.

Conclusion

In conclusion, serious shortcomings of the training programs continue to reduce their effectiveness for both women and men.

Women have constituted a lower proportion of trainees than might reasonably be expected, particularly in the more important directly job-related programs. Furthermore, the content and structure of training programs are often insensitive to the needs of women. This must be changed in order to make the programs accessible and meaningful to women.

Recent CEIC "encouragement" of training of women in non-traditional occupations is inadequate as it has only affected a handful of women. The participation of women in the directly job-related programs remains largely confined to training in sex-stereotyped occupations, reinforcing the historical pattern of female employment. Stronger measures to ensure that women receive training for the forecasted

labour shortages in highly skilled occupations in the 1980's are essential to any real progress in this area.

A high proportion of both female and male trainees were characterized by their youth, single status, lack of dependents and low level of educational attainment. Again, this suggests that training programs need to be changed to also serve the needs of older women and women with dependents.

FOOTNOTES

- 5.1 Goldman, Barbara. New Directions for Manpower Policy, p. 40.
- 5.2 Interdepartmental Evaluation Study of the Canada Manpower Training Program, p. 116.
- 5.3 Annual Statistical Bulletin 1977-78, Canada Manpower Training Program, p. 64.
- 5.4 Interdepartmental Evaluation Study of the Canada Manpower Training Program, p. 133.
- 5.5 Ibid., p. 129.
- 5.6 Ibid., p. 176.
- 5.7 Annual Statistical Bulletin 1977-78, Canada Manpower Training Program, p. 73.
- 5.8 Interdepartmental Evaluation Study of the Canada Manpower Training Program, pp. 176, 177.
- 5.9 Ibid., p. 25.
- 5.10 Frizell, Jan, and Hacker, Pat. An Employment Service for Women: A Concept Paper, July 1979 (mimeographed).
- 5.11 Towards Equality for Women. Status of Women Canada, Minister of Supply and Services Canada, 1979, p. 17.
- 5.12 The occupational segregation and concentration of women in the training programs would probably appear even greater if a finer definition of occupations were used (i.e. defined by 4-digit instead of 3-digit occupational codes) since, frequently, women are concentrated in only one or two of the occupations contained in an occupational group.

CHAPTER 6

DIRECT JOB CREATION AND WOMEN

Direct job creation by the government has the potential to improve the labour market position of women. Unfortunately this potential has not been realized. Past direct job creation programs have had two main objectives - to stimulate the economy in economic downturns by creating new jobs and to improve the labour market position of the disadvantaged. Although to some extent the objectives of different direct job creation programs have overlapped the main objective of Canada Works (CW), Local Initiatives Program (LIP) and Young Canada Works (YCW) and the Summer Job Corps (SJC) have been the former, i.e. stabilization; while Local Employment Assistance Programs's (LEAP) main goal has been the latter. A subsidiary goal of these programs has been to contribute to community betterment. (See Appendix I for a detailed description of direct job creation programs and their current status.)

Direct job creation programs have been an important part of federal employment policy in the last decade. However, there are other policies besides direct job creation which can be used to try to achieve the same major objectives. The goal of economic stimulation can be pursued by tax cuts, increased public expenditures on goods and services, or private sector subsidies, for example. Improving the labour market position of the disadvantaged can be attempted through training, mobility and counselling programs.

In fact, the direct job creation approach has recently fallen from favour. Wage subsidies or tax credits to the private sector have been achieving more pre-eminence in

employment programs, as witnessed by their central place in the (defeated) Conservative budget for 1980. Nonetheless, direct job creation programs are still of great interest, given their important role in the past and their probable re-emergence in the future.

Some research has been carried out to evaluate the relative merits of some of these alternative measures. This will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 7. In this chapter, we are primarily concerned with direct job creation programs as a vehicle for helping women. In this respect, there are three major issues regarding direct job creation as it has operated in the past: short-term versus permanent job creation; success of the programs as a transition to permanent employment; and targetting of programs.

Short-term versus Permanent Job Creation

Direct job creation programs of the first type have been aimed primarily at creating short-term jobs. The rationale for creating short-term rather than permanent jobs relies upon the anticipation of an economic upturn in the near future. Then such jobs provide temporary stimulation in a recession, or provide a transition for disadvantaged workers to permanent jobs in the private sector. However, unless private sector expansion does indeed create new jobs to replace the temporary ones created by the government in the downturn or to absorb the transitional workers, short-term job creation will not ameliorate the employment situation in the long run. The assumption of an imminent economic recovery is coming under increasing scrutiny, given the continuation of high unemployment and the gloomy economic forecasts for the future. In A Medium Term Strategy for Employment and Manpower Policies, the authors state that the trend in unemployment in OECD

countries (including Canada) has been worsening since the late 1960's, and that, furthermore there is evidence that the nature of unemployment may be changing.^{6.1} They conclude that, "A short-term recovery strategy - while essential for achieving self-sustained growth performance - is unlikely to be sufficient to regain full employment."^{6.2}

Although direct job creation programs have the potential to be beneficial to women, the short-term nature of the jobs created exacerbates some aspects of women's employment problems. In the past, women have exhibited a different labour market pattern than men, related to their child-rearing responsibilities and traditional societal role. As a result, they have been criticized for their lack of attachment to the labour market and regarded as "secondary" workers. Recently, we have witnessed a massive influx of women into the labour market, coupled with increasing unemployment rates for women. Direct job creation programs which can potentially help women in their struggle to secure a better place in the labour market have primarily offered women, however, short-term, discontinuous and low-paying employment - a continuation of the pattern for which women have been criticized and penalized. The short-term participation in programs also inhibits their effectiveness as a vehicle for training or for gaining a continuity of work experience. This becomes even more injurious in the situation of continued high unemployment described above, when the likelihood of finding permanent jobs in the private sector is decreased and many women have become unemployed or withdrawn from the labour market.

The average duration of jobs created by Canada Works has been only 21 to 26 work weeks, or approximately 5 to 6 work months. In fact, the shortest duration of participation

is found in the most recent phase of Canada Works. (See Appendix II, Table 20.)

Programs such as Young Canada Works, which were directed towards creating employment for students during the summer months (the great majority of whom resumed their studies in the fall) must be examined in light of this goal. In keeping with this, the average length of participation in the program was necessarily limited, and was approximately 10 weeks in 1977 and 1978.

LEAP which has been aimed primarily at improving the labour market position of the disadvantaged shows a very different picture of participation than Canada Works. Participation in LEAP has been quite lengthy, 100 weeks on average. However, LEAP is a very small program compared to the short-term job creation programs.

Transition to Permanent Employment

The second major issue concerns the success of these programs as a transition to permanent employment. A simple measure of this is the extent to which participants in programs aimed primarily at cyclical stimulation, such as LIP and Canada Works, have been able to find employment following the program. Similarly, have programs like LEAP, aimed at the disadvantaged, improved the position of their participants? It should be noted that since many other factors besides participation in the program can effect the labour force status of individuals, it is difficult to make a conclusive case for the effectiveness of these programs without a control group to serve as a basis for comparison.

Furthermore, the data bearing on this issue suffer

a number of serious shortcomings which render any conclusions drawn from it very tenuous.

It is important to detail some of these qualifications in that this type of data has been used extensively to evaluate such employment programs.^{6.3}

The shortcomings of the data are:

- i) The determination of labour force status is not very rigorous. It is self-reported data and relies on recall of events over more than a year in the past for determining pre-program labour force status. The categories do not correspond directly to those of the Labour Force Survey. (For example, the category, "Unemployed and Not Looking for Work", an approximation of those not in the labour force, probably includes some workers who would be counted as part of the unemployed by the Labour Force Survey.)

Furthermore, the type of questions asked are likely to cause a bias in the results, particularly for women, similar to that of the old Labour Force Survey. When questions about labour force status are phrased in terms of activity engaged in during the week, as in the old Labour Force Survey and the Canada Works Survey, women tend to vastly underestimate their labour force involvement. This is particularly true when "keeping house" is given as one of the alternatives since this tends to overshadow other activities, like looking in the newspaper for employment. When the revised Labour Force Survey replaced this type of question with direct questions about whether or not the individual actually did engage in the activities which indicate labour force

involvement, it turned out that many more women were really part of the labour force than had been measured under the old survey.^{6.4} Hence, it is strongly suspected that data from the CW follow-up survey and participant records (and other similarly generated data) for women, overestimate for the category "Unemployed and Not Looking for Work" and underestimate for the category, "Unemployed and Looking for Work."

- ii) Twenty-five percent of all participants were surveyed in the follow-up survey. The response rate was only 49%. Furthermore, the total extent of response bias is not known.
- iii) Post-program labour force status, measured a relatively short time after participation in the program and only at one point in time, may be unrepresentative. As well, the follow-up survey for Canada Works Phase I (CWI) was carried out in the winter months, when unemployment is higher than at other times, introducing seasonal factors into the data. These follow-up surveys are presently being changed to take place a year after program participation and to follow individuals over time. This should help to give a better picture of the post program labour force status of participants.

Keeping the qualifications made above in mind, the pre and post labour force status of CWI participants can be examined. (See Appendix II, Table 21) Comparing main status before Canada Works Phase I (CWI) with status 4 to 5 months after CWI, shows that the percentage employed decreased by 6% for males and 3% for females. The "unemployed and looking for work" category actually rose 11% for both men and women. The "unemployed and

not looking for work" category rose insignificantly, by 2% for males and 1% for females. Those in training or school decreased by 7% for males and 9% for females.

To the extent the qualifications regarding the data permit a conclusion, the information available does not support the thesis that programs aimed at cyclical stimulation like Canada Works have provided a transition to permanent employment.^{6.5} Although this data might seem to suggest that direct job creation programs have increased measured unemployment, it is probably in fact providing temporary employment for discouraged workers and alternative employment opportunities for other Canadians.

In accordance with its objectives, the impact of LEAP cannot be measured in terms of the number of jobs created, but rather in terms of the quality and durability of employment opportunities created and by the impact on individuals in disadvantaged groups. An evaluation of LEAP by its participants carried out by the Strategic Policy and Planning Group of CEIC, showed that they felt that they had benefited from the program primarily through learning skills, earning income, improving relations with others and being assisted to get a better job. While LEAP participants gave many reasons for leaving LEAP, 42% of ex-Retention participants and 58% of ex-Preparation participants found employment. (See Appendix I for a description of Retention and Preparation LEAP projects and Appendix II, Table 22 for a tabular presentation of statistics.)

Some aspects of the short-term employment creation programs that hinder their effectiveness as transition vehicles are lack of adequate supervision, scarcity of capital and little formal training and skill improvement components.

These factors are particularly important for improving the status of disadvantaged workers. The low allowable wages for participants make it more difficult to attract good supervisory help. While the low proportion of non-wage funding is helpful in ensuring that the money goes to create the maximum number of short-term jobs, some more capital-intensive projects may be necessary to improve the skills and employment potential of participants. The lack of formal training as part of the programs, together with the above, reduces their potential for raising the skill level of participants.

There is another factor which has reduced the value of these programs as transition vehicles, particularly for women. Women have tended to have a higher participation rate in service activities. Many of the service-type projects sponsored by these programs either provided needed services which had hitherto been ignored by the existing agencies, or pioneered innovative ways of delivering services. However, even when the traditional agencies followed their lead in the provision of these services, they frequently would not recognize the job experience of the LEAP participants, and preferred to hire professionals in the field instead.^{6.6} This propensity to value professionalism over experience and personal initiative is particularly detrimental to women, who often lack formal credentials as a result of historical dependence and sex-stereotyping. Coupled with the lack of a formal training component, and short-term participation, it likely has significantly reduced the potential of these programs to improve the employability of its female participants.

Targetting of Programs and Participation of Women

The third major issue concerns the targetting of the programs. The target population of the direct job creation programs is generally the unemployed, or those who are disadvantaged in the labour market as a result of geographical or other factors. The two groups frequently overlap as a large part of the unemployed naturally tends to be disadvantaged as well. In this study we are concerned with how these programs target on women who are experiencing labour market difficulties.

Women constituted 43% to 45% of the unemployed from 1975 to 1978, the years for which data on these programs were collected. In comparison with this, women have been under-represented in all the direct job creation programs, except in the case of YCW and Summer Job Corps. The extent of this bias differs between programs and over time. LIP, with women comprising 39% of its participants in 1976-77, was discontinued. Canada Works, which followed LIP, had a much smaller percentage of women, 27% in the first phase of its operation. This percentage has improved slightly in the second and third phases of Canada Works to 31%. LEAP which is targetted on the disadvantaged, was composed of 31% female participants. Only in programs aimed at youth were women adequately represented in terms of numbers. They comprised 53% of the participants in YCW and 56% of the smaller SJC in 1978 (See Table V).

Some recent trends in implementation of these programs are creating barriers to participation of women. The lower rate of female participation in CWI compared to that in LIP has been partially attributed to the types of projects being sponsored. Thirty-eight percent of the LIP projects

TABLE V

PARTICIPATION IN SELECTED DIRECT
JOB CREATION PROGRAMS BY SEX

	Number		Percentage	
	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>
Canada Works, Phase I (CWI) (April '77 - April '78)	8,506	22,537	27.4	72.6
Canada Works, Phase II (CWII) (Nov. '77 - Feb. '79)	17,789	39,227	31.2	68.8
Canada Works, Phase III (CWIII) (Sept. '78 - Jul. '80)	16,695	37,686	30.7	69.3
Local Employment Assistance Pro- gram (LEAP) (1973-1978)	not available		31.0	69.0
Young Canada Works (YCW) 1977	15,924	14,581	52.2	47.8
1978	14,564	13,071	52.7	47.3
Summer Youth Job Corps (SJC) 1978	3,375	2,641	56.1	43.9
Local Initiatives Program (LIP) 1976-77	not available		39.1	60.9

Sources: - Canada Works Participant Data. See Footnote 6.7(i)a
 - LEAP Participant Data. See Footnote 6.7(ii)a
 - YCW Participant Data. See Footnote 6.7(iii)
 - LIP Participant Data. See Footnote 6.7(iv)
 - SJC Data. See Footnote 6.7(v)

were service (including artistic and cultural) activities, compared to only 29% of CWI projects. At the same time, construction and land, parks and forestry projects which were only 52% of LIP projects, comprised 63% of CWI projects. (See Appendix II, Table 23). The policital perception of the shift in the public's desire away from services to concrete outputs such as community halls at that time, resulted in this change in type of activity sponsored. As women have traditionally been highly represented in the service activities, this shift has resulted in lower female participation.

Since sponsors of projects (typically community agencies etc.) hire people on the basis of the Canada Employment Centre (CEC's) referrals, part of the reason for lower female participation may be reluctance of sponsors and CEC's to consider women for non-traditional activities. Also in small communities strong social pressure tends to prohibit women from applying for these "men's" jobs. One way of counteracting low female participation is to encourage the types of projects that women tend to work in. However, without concomitant emphasis on project sponsors and CEC's to refer and employ women in non-traditional work, this has the disadvantage of supporting the present occupational ghettoization of women. CEIC has stated that they were trying to encourage such developments to increase female representation in CW. However, details of the progress they achieved is necessary in order to evaluate their initiatives in this regard.

There is another deterrent to sponsoring service activities. CEIC will not sponsor projects that result in

a continued community dependence, as this would create problems once funding is withdrawn. Service projects, which generally fulfil a continuing community need, are much more likely to fall short of this requirement than construction projects. Unless project sponsors can demonstrate that they have alternate funding to continue the project after government funding is withdrawn, such projects are now ineligible. Since the recipients of these services are often poorer and less vocal than other community members, it is difficult for these services to be provided on a cost-recovery economically viable basis, or to win allocation of community monies. Hence, although these projects meet serious needs, they experience difficulty in being sponsored and continued. It is ironic that such projects which are obviously addressing community needs, are the very ones that cannot obtain funds.

Another change that has adversely affected the participation of women is that over time, the direct job creation programs have been targetted more strictly on the unemployed, at the expense of the underemployed, marginally employed and discouraged workers. Twenty-seven percent of female LIP participants (1976-77) were not in the labour force (the so-called "unemployed and not looking for work") prior to the program, while only 10% of CWI and 8% of CWII female participants were in this position. Hence, LIP functioned as a more effective re-entry device than CW for women, enabling them to acquire experience and skills. It is doubtful that the operation of LIP as a re-entry device for women was perceived as a positive feature of the program, given its stated goals and the subsequent decline in this function in CW.

Characteristics of Female Participants

The available data shows that direct job creation programs have been biased towards relatively young women and women without dependents.^{6.7} This is disturbing given the needs of older women and women with dependents. The female participants of the short-term job creation programs also tended to be relatively highly educated. Using CWII as an example of a short-term job creation program, we find that the great majority of female participants were under 44, with 41% aged 15-24 and 45% aged 25-44. They were relatively highly educated, particularly in comparison with male participants. Twenty-two percent of the females had secondary school graduation and 35% had post-secondary education; compared to 18% and 15% of the males, respectively. Data on the number of dependents (i.e. persons wholly or largely dependent on participant's income) was collected for both sexes only. The data shows that 61% of all participants had no dependents. (However, comparable data for Canada Works Phase III (CWIII) which is collected by sex, indicates that 81% of females had no dependents, while 67% of all participants were in this category.)

For LEAP, again, most female participants were under 45 years old; with 48%, 14 to 24 and 39%, 25 to 44 years old. Information on number of dependents is not available by sex. However, 48% of all participants had no dependents.

As might be expected, only 3% of female YCW participants in 1978 were 25 or over and 79% had no dependents.

Potential Benefits of Direct Job Creation Programs for Women

What are the potential benefits for women of direct job creation programs?

Direct job creation programs are very targettable and flexible. The government has control of where and when funds are spent, of the type of project approved, and through CEC referrals or consultation, of the choice of those hired. If, in fact, the government's commitment to improving women's economic position is stronger than that of private industry, this will work to the advantage of women. If the government wished to take a leading role in advancing the labour market status of women, these programs could be used as a vehicle to do so, particularly in the areas of decreasing job ghettoization and stereotyping, improving the skills and experience of women, serving as a re-entry device for women returning to the labour force following child-rearing responsibilities, and increasing flexibility of working conditions.

However, as the programs are presently structured, there are major barriers to using them for this purpose - i.e. the short-term nature of the jobs, the low wages, lack of training components, and institutional and political problems between federal, provincial and municipal governments. Furthermore, even aside from these liabilities, on its present scale, direct job creation programs only provide employment for a relatively small number of women, leaving the employment problems of the vast majority of women untouched. Hence, a major re-structuring of direct job creation programs would be necessary in order to realize their potential for women.

FOOTNOTES

- 6.1 OECD, A Medium Term Strategy for Employment and Manpower Policies, p. 15.
- 6.2 Ibid., p. 79.
- 6.3 The data was obtained from participant records and follow-up surveys. The procedure used in the follow-up surveys was to mail a questionnaire to participants approximately 4 months after program termination asking for information on their pre and post-program labour force experience.
- 6.4 Statistics Canada, Labour Force Information for the Week Ended Jan. 17, 1976, p. 12-13.
- 6.5 A similar conclusion has been reached regarding LIP. See Economic Council of Canada, People and Jobs, p. 136-138.
- 6.6 Conversation with CEIC officials.
- 6.7 Sources of data on Direct Job Creation Programs are:
- i) CW:
- a) Participant data from participant records and Program Status Report, June 11, 1979. Canada Works Program Development Unit. Job Creation Branch, CEIC.
- Data from participant records are returned on a voluntary basis by participants and may be biased.
- Phase I covers projects from April 4, 1977 to March 31, 1978
- Phase II data covers projects from Oct. 31, 1977 to Feb. 6, 1979.
- Phase III covers projects to be carried out from Sept. 1, 1978 to June 31, 1980.
- Phase II and Phase III data may be revised.
- b) Data from Canada Works Follow-Up Survey, Program Evaluation Branch, CEIC.

FOOTNOTES

ii) LEAP:

- a) Participant data, LEAP, Job Creation Branch, CEIC. This data covers projects carried out from 1973 to Oct. 1978.
- b) Future Policy and Planning Report, Oct. 1977, Strategic Policy and Planning, CEIC. Data covers projects operational in 1975-76. Hence, these projects may have started as early as 1973. The first follow-up was carried out in the summer of 1975. Since the base was small, a second follow-up was carried out in the summer of 1976. Excerpts from this report were received from Job Creation Branch, CEIC.

iii) YCW:

Participant Data, Job Creation Branch, CEIC. Statistics are based on a 62% sample of participants in 1977, and 51% sample in 1978.

iv) LIP:

Local Initiatives Program (1976-77), Statistical Appendix, Program Evaluation Branch, Strategic Policy and Planning, CEIC, January 1978.

v) SJC:

Data from Summer Youth Employment Program Branch Report, provided by Strategic Policy and Planning, CEIC.

CHAPTER 7

PRIVATE SECTOR EXPANSION AND WOMEN

The government has other methods at its disposal for stimulating the economy besides direct job creation. These methods differ in their effects on employment and inflation, in their speed of impact, etc. They also differ in their potential to benefit women. In this section, we will examine three methods of private sector stimulation that can be compared to direct job creation. These are a reduction in personal income taxes, an increase in government expenditures on goods and services, and private sector wage subsidies. Using these measures employment is increased by inducing the private sector to expand.

Policies which rely on the expansion of the private sector have been regarded with increasing favour over the past few years as discontent with the growth of the public sector has intensified. In fact, the defeated Conservative budget for 1980, would have relied almost entirely upon wage subsidy programs, and would have phased out most direct job creation programs. Given the importance of this shift in emphasis, it is necessary to evaluate these policies vis-à-vis those which do not rely on the private sector, such as direct job creation programs. Such a comparison is important for three reasons. First, the employment creation capacity of the private sector may be insufficient to meet the demand for employment as discussed in Part I of this study. Second, there is a popular misconception that policies which rely on the private sector are free from the liabilities of programs like direct job creation. As discussed below, this is not generally true. Finally, the programs differ in their implications for women.

Mechanics of Expansionary Measures

When personal income taxes are reduced, personal disposal income is increased and hence individuals' demand for goods and services increases. In order to satisfy this extra demand, output increases, and with it employment.

When the government increases its expenditures on goods and services, this creates an additional demand for output and, as a result, for more employment.

Private sector wage subsidies involve the government subsidizing employers, either in the form of income or as a tax credit for hiring employees they would otherwise not have hired, for retaining employees they would otherwise have let go, or for hiring members of disadvantaged groups. Here we will not consider retention of surplus employees, since the Canadian subsidies programs have not been of this nature.

Direct job creation, as explained in Chapter 6, involves government creating jobs directly through programs like Canada Works.

In each of these alternative methods there is an immediate effect when the money is spent. This is followed by many rounds of secondary effects as each round of recipients of the extra income spends some of it again in turn.

Comparison of Employment Impact of Expansionary Measures

These alternatives can be compared in terms of some general criteria. First, given the same cost, which method increases employment the most?^{7.1} Direct job creation programs have a strong immediate effect on employment. This is because they are very labour intensive and a high proportion

of the money is spent on wages and salaries. When the same dollar increase in government expenditures takes place, a smaller proportion of it actually goes for wages and salaries than in the direct job creation case, hence the creation of new jobs via its direct effect is smaller. A reduction in personal income taxes has no direct employment effect.

The secondary employment effects of these three measures are roughly comparable although for direct job creation programs it is also generally higher given that they primarily employ low income workers who are inclined to spend more of the extra money than those with higher incomes.

The Economic Impact of Selected Government Programs Directed Towards the Labour Market, compares these effects for the Local Initiatives Program, LIP, (an example of a direct job creation program); increased government expenditure on goods and services and a personal income tax reduction.^{7.2} The authors estimate how employment would have been affected if the \$378 million spent on LIP between 1971 and 1973 had been spent on one of the other two alternatives instead. If the option of increasing government current expenditures had been chosen instead of LIP, then it is estimated that employment would have been reduced by 1,000 in 1971, 26,000 in 1972, and 27,000 in 1973. This amounts to approximately 26% of all jobs created by LIP between 1971, 1972 and 1973 program years. Choosing the option of reducing personal income tax was estimated to result in a somewhat greater loss in jobs compared to expenditures on LIP - 1,000, 31,000 and 34,000 in 1971, 1972 and 1973 respectively. This substantiates the greater employment impact of direct job creation programs compared to government expenditures on goods and services or tax reductions.

In A Medium Term Strategy for Employment and Man-power Policies, the authors suggest that temporary wage sub-

sidies or tax credits for hiring additional workers could create more employment per dollar spent than direct job creation programs, only if they do not induce substitution of subsidized workers for unsubsidized ones. This is primarily because unlike job creation programs, the government is not required to provide equipment or material.^{7.3}

A wage subsidy or tax credit for hiring additional workers is most attractive to firms when an economic upturn is anticipated. In such cases the subsidy is expected to induce earlier hiring than would otherwise be the case. During deflationary periods, not enough firms may take advantage of the subsidy, resulting in a small total employment effect. However, the risk of misuse of such subsidies increases at times of anticipated recoveries, times which are conducive to hiring even without the subsidy incentive. In such cases, the cost per "genuine" job created increases.^{7.4}

Furthermore, unless demand is increased somehow to absorb the potential additional output of the subsidized workers, output will not change and the effect of increased employment as a result of wage subsidies will simply reduce productivity. Given all of these difficulties, the OECD authors finally conclude that the net "genuine" increase in employment may be much smaller than expected in the short-run, and the long-run effects are uncertain, but probably weak.^{7.5}

Comparison of Effect on Labour Force

Cooke et al found that although additional jobs were created by choosing the direct job creation alternative (LIP) instead of either increases in current government ex-

penditures or reductions in personal income tax, these extra jobs were almost offset by concomitant increases in the labour force. Hence, the estimated unemployment rate was approximately the same for these three alternatives.^{7.6}

It should be noted that the phenomenon of drawing individuals into the labour force also occurs with the other expansionary measures. The comparative number of individuals drawn into the labour force as a result of these stimulative policies may well vary greatly according to their institutional and structural makeup. However, the provision of employment for discouraged workers can be considered to be well within the broad goals of employment policy.

The drawing of workers back into the labour force is unfortunately often considered a negative aspect of expansionary programs. This point of view needs to be seriously questioned. Although providing employment for discouraged workers does not reduce the "measured" unemployment rate (often the narrow political focus of employment policies) it clearly fulfills genuine employment needs. Women in particular have been under-utilized and often economically penalized as a result of the low priority given to helping discouraged workers find employment.

Comparison of Inflationary Effects

Another consideration is the inflationary effect of these measures. Bailey and Solow expect that direct job creation will be less inflationary to the extent that programs are targetted on workers with less than average bargaining power over wages, and to the extent that wages are kept low so as to not exert upward pressure on wages elsewhere.^{7.7} The Canadian direct job creation programs have fulfilled these two requirements in the past.

Both tax cuts and private sector wage subsidies have deflationary as well as inflationary aspects.^{7.8} The deflationary aspects (such as reducing wage demands in the case of tax cuts) may or may not be realized. Inflationary aspects include those resulting from the expansion of the economy due to either measure. As well there is the possibility that higher wage demands could result from wage subsidies.

Referring again to The Economic Impact of Selected Government Programs Directed Towards the Labour Market, the authors show that the estimated effect of LIP on the inflation rate is roughly similar to that estimated for increased government current expenditures or decreased income taxes. It is difficult to conclude that any alternative is necessarily more advantageous with respect to inflationary effects.

Speed of Employment Creation

The speed with which these measures can increase employment is also of interest. Since none of these measures are automatically called forth by a recession, they all involve a lag during which the problem is recognized and a solution implemented. Direct job creation programs have demonstrated that they can be implemented quite quickly.^{7.9} The path from an income tax cut to employment creation is lengthy and hence, in general, it is a slower method of increasing employment than increased government expenditures on goods and services which raise aggregate demand immediately. Private sector wage subsidies depend upon uptake by firms, and as was indicated this may be slower than desired. For example, the Employment Tax Credit implemented in 1978 experienced slow uptake at first due to its design, but this improved with relaxation of its regulations.

Evaluation of Output and Other Social Goals

Two other considerations not yet mentioned are the evaluation of output and other social goals achieved by the different policies. These are difficult to measure. One of the selection criteria for direct job creation projects has been the provision of worthwhile goods and service. There is some evidence that suggests that the output of Canadian direct job creation projects has indeed served community needs.^{7.10} However, output from direct job creation projects cannot be easily compared to private sector output. Indeed, this is true of most types of government output. On the other hand, as mentioned earlier, private sector wages subsidies may not result in any increased output, but reduce productivity instead.

All of the measures considered can pursue other social goals besides economic stabilization. In some direct job creation programs improvement of the status of groups of unemployed or disadvantaged workers is an important aim. While direct job creation has the advantage of being easily targettable on particular groups or regions, wage subsidies programs can also be slanted to benefit selected groups, as proposed in the defeated Conservative budget of 1980.

Participation of Women in Wage Subsidy Programs

Let us examine the participation of women in Canadian wage subsidy programs. These are Job Experience Training (JET) and Job Exploration for Students (JES), the Employment Tax Credit Program (ETCP) and the (unimplemented) Private Employment Incentives Program. (See Appendix I for a more detailed description of these programs.)

The former two are aimed at improving the employability of young people. CEIC provides employers with wage subsidies for qualifying workers (those who have left or intend to leave school) under certain conditions.

In 1977 and 1978, women were approximately 43% of the unemployed under 25. (See Appendix II Table 24). Women were only 39% of JET participants in 1977-78, but were 44% in 1978-79. In 1978, women were only 37% of JES participants. Data on the age of participants is available for JET in 1977-78. All participants were under 25 years old, and 72% of participants were under 20, indicating that this program has successfully targetted on young people. The total number of work-weeks and average length of participation in JET in 1977-78 and JES in 1978 was 11.8 and 7 weeks respectively. (See Appendix II, Table 25).

The ETCP is aimed at creating incremental employment in the private sector by offering tax credits under certain conditions to companies who fill jobs in addition to their normal needs. Although this was not specifically aimed at youth, 56% of its participants were under 25 (57% of women and 55% of men.) (See Table VI.) In comparison, those under 25 only accounted for 46% of the unemployed. Women are represented in ETCP in the same proportion as in the unemployed; 45% of both ETCP participants and the unemployed in 1978 were women. Hence, the participation of women as a whole in the program has been adequate in terms of numbers, given the program's objectives. Older women, however, are not receiving the assistance they need in obtaining jobs through ETCP.

Looking beyond mere numbers of women in the program, it is likely that ETCP is offering women primarily low paid, and sex-stereotyped and short-term work. The preponderance of youth hired through the program suggests that most employers used the program to hire workers who

would cost them as little as possible over and above the tax credit. The average weekly wage in the program was only \$195 overall. However for women the average weekly wage was considerably less, only \$150. Although ETCP participants had the opportunity to obtain private sector employment experience, most likely in relatively low-skilled and low-paying jobs, it is not clear that employers retain these workers once the tax credit terminates. This likelihood is decreased in times of anticipated recession, when the program was operational. Hence, beyond giving the participants some temporary private sector job experience and income, the contribution of this program to changing the underlying problems in women's employment situation is likely very low.

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF
EMPLOYMENT TAX CREDIT PROGRAM (ETCP)
PARTICIPANTS BY AGE & SEX

	<u>14-18</u>	<u>18-24</u>	<u>25-30</u>	<u>30-</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	4.0	53.0	17.5	25.5	100.0
Male	3.3	51.3	20.6	24.8	100.0
Total	3.6	52.1	19.2	25.1	100.0

Source: Wage Subsidy Programs Branch, CEIC
Unpublished data.

The Private Employment Incentives Program proposal in the defeated Conservative budget for 1980 was designed to improve the employment opportunities of groups experiencing difficulties in the labour market. Although this program was never implemented, it is of interest as a prototype which may influence future programs. It consisted of two thrusts. First, a tax credit would have been offered to employers who hired young people (under 26) into newly created jobs. Second, tax credits would have been available to employers who hired individuals who had been experiencing long-term unemployment, or who hired those members of traditionally disadvantaged groups who were likely to experience difficulty finding employment. These designated groups consisted of all native peoples, the handicapped, people over 55 and women returning to the labour force after a significant period of absence.

This program differed from the ETCP in its emphasis on slanting employment towards disadvantaged groups, and would not have necessarily involved the creation of new jobs. The inclusion of re-entry women as a target group under this program would have significantly raised its relevance for women above that of the ETCP. As discussed, older women were under-represented in the ETCP. However, even if such a program were implemented, there is some concern that private sector uptake of the second half of the program, that is the hiring of members of the traditionally disadvantaged groups (excluding youth), might be slower than desirable.

Although, such a program could have increased employment opportunities for women, it is improbable that, as it was formulated, it would have come to terms with women's other essential problems. Again, such employment

would have likely continued the same pattern of low-pay, low-skill and short-term work.

Potential for Women

In this study we are particularly concerned with the potential of each of these measures to improve women's labour force situation. As discussed in Chapter 6 the potential of direct job creation programs derive from their targetability, flexibility, and controllability. The effect of tax cuts, increases in government expenditures or wage subsidies on the labour force situation of women, depends primarily upon the employment practices of private industry. The practices of the private sector have not been to the benefit of women in the past. It is highly unlikely that they will spontaneously be so with respect to the employment generation stimulated by these measures. However, subsidies programs could be designed specifically to improve the employment opportunities of women.

Both direct job creation programs and wage subsidy programs have the possibility of being targetted on women. As these programs have been formulated, however, they have resulted primarily in poorly paid, sex-typed and short duration jobs with little training opportunities for women. The greater government control over direct job creation programs is both an asset and a liability. On the one hand, this greatly facilitates attempts to improve aspects of women's involvement in the programs if the government is in fact willing to take on this commitment. On the other hand, these programs constitute an expansion of the public sector, which may be perceived by many as negative.

Similarly, wage subsidy programs both benefit and suffer from their dependence on the private sector. On the

positive side, expanding private sector employment generally has a more positive connotation. Participants also gain private sector work experience with employers who may retain or recommend them following the program. On the negative side, without even more controls which might make the program unpopular, there is little hope of improving the quality of women's employment.

The two general measures, income tax reductions and government expenditure increases, offer little possibility for targetting or improving women's employment situation. However, income tax reductions could indirectly help women if the type of reduction were related to barriers to women's equality. An example of this is increased exemptions for child care. Also, to the extent that the tax cut increases the progressiveness of the tax system, this will likely benefit women as a whole since on average they have lower incomes than men. To a small extent, this income redistribution could financially compensate for the concentration of women in low-paying occupations, but it would not change the underlying problem, or improve matters for those who remain unemployed.

Similarly, if increases in government expenditure were spent on eliminating barriers to women's equality in the labour force, this could indirectly improve women's labour force status.

It must be kept in mind that the benefits of all these expansionary programs are very limited since they are geared towards creating short-term jobs until the "imminent" economic recovery takes place. If one takes into account forecasts of continued long-term unemployment, then the necessity of creating permanent jobs becomes evident. Moreover, all of these expansionary programs affect only a small proportion of women and are only marginal solutions to women's employment problems as a whole.

FOOTNOTES

- 7.1 The net cost of these measures will depend upon the return tax flow from sales of goods and services and income tax, and the increased social security contributions and reduction in expenditures on unemployment related benefits resulting from increased employment. The ratio of gross to net cost may vary between these measures.
- 7.2 Cook P.A., Jump, G.V., Hidgins, C.D., Szabo, C.J., The Economic Impact of Selected Government Programs Directed Toward the Labour Market, p. 85-91.
- 7.3 OECD, A Medium Term Strategy for Employment and Manpower Policies, p. 74-75.
- 7.4 Ibid., p. 70.
- 7.5 Ibid., p. 67.
- 7.6 Cooke et al, The Economic Impact of Selected Government Programs Directed Toward the Labour Market, p. 89.
- 7.7 Bailey, N. and Solow, R. "Public Service Employment as Macroeconomic Policy," p. 62-64.
- 7.8 OECD, p. 64, 76.
- 7.9 Some statistics drawn from Cooke et al (p. 43-45) illustrate this for LIP. LIP was announced in October, 1971, soliciting projects capable of being put into effect quickly so that the main employment impact occurred within 6 months after November 1971. In 1971-1972, 13,738 applications for grants were received, of which about 40 percent were approved, and 90,000 jobs were created.
- 7.10 A review of projects funded under Phase I of Canada Works indicated that 76% of the projects in the sample resulted in the creation of a facility or product; 48% of which were of economic value to the community. (Job Creation Branch, CEIC)

PART III

AN EMPLOYMENT STRATEGY

FOR WOMEN

INTRODUCTION

The scope of this paper does not allow for a detailed analysis of an employment strategy for women. Indeed, such an undertaking would require a separate intensive study. Thus, the focus of the following chapters is necessarily confined to a brief discussion of some of the central considerations for an employment strategy for women.

CHAPTER 8

SPECIAL NEEDS OF WOMEN RELATED TO PARTICIPATION IN THE LABOUR FORCE

Needs of Women as a Group

Special measures are required to improve the economic position of women and to counteract their historical dependence and relegation to the role of unpaid homemaker. Recognition and accommodation of the family responsibilities of working individuals is of utmost importance in this regard, not just for women but for all of society. Availability of high quality child care which is reliable, affordable and convenient is a necessary condition before equality of opportunity for women can realistically be discussed. It is also important for men with responsibilities for children, and for the children of working parents themselves.

Despite changing values, women still bear the primary responsibility for child care.^{8.1} As well as surmounting the multi-workload of paid work, care of children, household maintenance, meal preparation, and sometimes care of the elderly, women also have to overcome the incompatibilities between participation in the workplace and their other obligations. The development of societal institutions and mechanisms to help share these responsibilities as women increasingly share financial responsibilities has not kept pace with the need. Gestures towards the female ethos on the part of society have not gone far enough in sharing the responsibilities in an equitable way.

In addition to the provision of adequate child care, the workplace itself must become flexible enough to accommodate

responsibilities associated with the home. Availability of part-time work with the same rights and benefits as full-time work; work-sharing; flexible working hours that are compatible with child care responsibilities; child care leave similar to educational leave - these are some of the changes that have been receiving attention. Some of these changes may be dismissed as too radical or unrealistic. However, it is important to realize that the present conditions of work are not sacrosanct. They have evolved to reflect the changing realities and needs of society, through the feudal system to the present day highly-industrialized society.

The development of models that women can follow is also important. In particular, women themselves must serve as role models for other women. Since few human beings are trail breakers, it is necessary to achieve sufficient numbers of women with reasonably satisfactory experiences in non-traditional modes of work to break the way and encourage others. Also important is the development of new society-sanctioned models of lifestyles which facilitate women's involvement in the labour force and the transition between the home and work phases of their lives.

Needs of Special Groups of Women:

As well as recognizing the needs that the majority of women have in common, policies are needed to answer the specific needs of different groups of women. These groups include women who are presently employed; young women who are present or future labour force entrants; older women entering or re-entering the labour force; immigrant women; and women with double disadvantages, such as native women and handicapped women.

The first group, employed women, are overwhelmingly found in low-paid, sex-stereotyped occupations. For these women vehicles to upgrade their status such as training and changed promotion practices are of paramount importance. For young women, an active non-sexist program of vocational guidance, education and employment experience are necessary to prevent a continuation of past occupational patterns. Older women re-entering the labour force suffer from inadequate evaluation of their qualifications and experience. They require greater access to effective counselling, better training and job experience opportunities and the development of mechanisms to provide better linkages between the parenting and working phases of their lives.^{8.2} Doubly disadvantaged women require special programs that relate to the nature of their disadvantage and are also sensitive to their needs as women.

FOOTNOTES

- 8.1 Proulx, Monique. Five Million Women: A Study of the Canadian Housewife, p. 34.
- 8.2 For a detailed discussion of re-entry women see: A Second Time Around: A Study of Women Returning to the Work Force, Mary Pearson, CACSW, April 1979.

CHAPTER 9

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND LABOUR MARKET POLICIES TO AID WOMEN

Faced with a serious and growing unemployment and under-employment problem that may well be linked to fundamental structural changes, what can realistically be expected from the federal government?

In order to attempt an answer to this question, we must first look at the limitations under which the federal government operates in this area. The scope and effectiveness of federal government actions is limited by the powers and actions of provincial and municipal governments, in such areas as training, wages and working conditions. Federal government employment policies are also moderated by other goals such as reducing inflation. Similarly, the value attached to non-interference in the private sector, to the competitive system, and to limiting of government expenditures restricts federal government actions.

Other events often beyond the control of the federal government, such as world-wide economic trends, economic policies of other governments, and energy-related dislocations, also have significant influences on employment in Canada and can sometimes overwhelm the effects of federal policies.

Finally, the nature of the role of the government in our society defines the nature of its policies to a large extent. In practice, the government responds to, rather than initiates change. The employment problems we are experiencing, particularly those of women, involve fundamental societal changes. Two basic societal values are implicated: the work ethic, and the relationship and distribution of power and responsibilities between men and women.

Major changes would have to occur before the federal government could bring many of these changes to fruition. Many intrinsic factors prohibit this such as the inertia of the bureaucratic structure of the Public Service and the political process itself.

Unless these changes occur, the most that can be expected from the federal government is that it attempt to facilitate the transitions involved and equitably distribute the costs. In achieving this, there is a fine balance between moderating the pace of change and not unduly holding back change; between responding to political perceptions and protecting the rights of those with less political force.

Even with these limited goals, the effectiveness of the federal government in changing that which is within its control is questionable. Federal government employment itself is a case of maximum control by the federal government. However, the achievement record of the government in respect to improving the position of its female employees does not inspire confidence.^{9.1}

In Part II, we examined the traditional employment policies from the point of view of women. All contained very serious shortcomings. No combination of these programs, as they are presently conceived will resolve women's employment problems. Nor have they proved appropriate for the present economic situation in general today. As discussed above the amelioration of women's situation cannot be a simple extrapolation of solutions to the problems facing men, since in some important respects their problems differ. The results of this study suggest that, for women, improving the quality of employment and its compatibility with family responsibilities, are more central problems than simply the creation of more jobs. These aspects are not well served by the present policies.

Direct job creation programs aimed at cyclical stabilization have provided women mainly with short-term, low-paying, sex-stereotyped employment with minimal training components, despite their advantages of ease of targetability, flexibility, and potential control over the content of the jobs. Private sector wage subsidy programs have been characterized by the same disadvantages. On the other hand, private sector wage subsidies provide participants with actual business work experience and encourage the private sector rather than adding to the "bigness" of the public sector. This advantage is diminished from the point of view of women to the extent that the subsidy programs passively leave employment decisions to employers who are less committed to equality of women.

Of the employment-creating programs, LEAP, the direct job creation program aimed at improving the employability of the disadvantaged, illustrates some features of a program suitable for women - such as lengthier participation, and greater orientation towards the needs of participants rather than towards counteracting cyclical unemployment. However, this program has only been a small component of the federal government's employment policy (accounting for only about 8% of direct job creation expenditures in 1978-79). The contemplated expansion of this program is mainly directed towards a specific group, native Indians, rather than women or Canadians at large. In order to make a significant impact on women's employment problems through LEAP, this program would have to grow enormously, and would require a major revamping in order to operate at this size and for this purpose.

The programs for youth have had an adequate representation of women. However, like most of the other employment creation programs, they do little to effect the central problem of the type of jobs women are doing. It is not clear that these programs are doing more than providing temporary bouts of employment for the young. Furthermore,

even the programs not geared specifically to youth have had a relatively high proportion of young participants. Older women, and women with dependents have not been adequately served by employment programs.

The present training programs, an enormously important component in an employment strategy for women, have several serious problems in practice. Although the representation of women is adequate in numbers in those training programs where selection of trainees is under federal control, the type of training women have been receiving remains sex-stereotyped. Furthermore, the effectiveness of this training is under question. In the apprenticeship program, for which selection of trainees has been under provincial control, only a scandalous 3% of participants are women. The rigidity of the programs and federal-provincial jurisdictional problems impair the effectiveness of the institutional program. The industrial training program, while more flexible, seems to be less accessible to women. The allowance and program structures render all the training programs quite inaccessible to women with dependents.

Efforts should be made to improve all the traditional programs along the lines outlined in this study. However, it is unlikely that this alone will be sufficient. In addition, there is a pressing need for more resources in terms of funds and people to be allocated to resolving the problems. The federal government's commitment to the equality of women cannot be taken seriously until the hopelessly inadequate resources devoted to the problem are substantially increased. This applies both to allocation of resources for groups that spearhead, co-ordinate, and monitor efforts within the government, as well as to resources for the programs themselves.

More research is also needed particularly in the areas of non-traditional employment; transition between work in the home and re-entry to the labour force; and innovative solutions to the problems.

The data to support the necessary research and to monitor progress is extremely inadequate in Canada. The absence of any detailed occupational data by sex since the 1971 Census is especially problematic. Furthermore, often statistics which have been collected by sex, are not publicly available. Rather, obtaining this data is often only possible through expensive special tabulations. This is true both of general labour market information and of information specific to employment programs.

FOOTNOTES

- 9.1 Women in the Public Service: Barriers to Equal Opportunity, CACSW, January 1979, gives a detailed evaluation of the federal government's programs to improve the status of its female employees, and shows that there has been little substantial improvement in the status of women in the Public Service.

CHAPTER 10

INNOVATIVE SOLUTIONS

More attention must be given to the formulation of more innovative policies. One such policy is the creation of a "third sector." The "third sector" would consist of enterprises that combined features of both the public and private sectors. It would be comprised of firms which operated outside of the public sector but obtained public and private subsidies either for initial start-up or for its lifetime. These firms could be profit-making ventures or non-profit organizations aimed at achieving societal goals, such as care of the elderly and community activities or firms primarily engaged in carrying out government contracts for work now done within the government sector, such as work in corrections, social services, etc. Proponents of this scheme see the "third sector" as a way of increasing employment without concomittantly increasing the size of the public sector and the dissatisfaction of the public with monolithic modern bureaucracies. They also see it as a realistic answer to the constraints on the capacity of private sector expansion.^{10.1} In fact there have already been subtle movements in this direction such as daycare centres and many direct job creation projects.

The "third sector" is an interesting concept from the point of view of women. It would aim to provide permanent employment. It could incorporate training components, flexibility of working conditions, a policy of hiring women in non-traditional occupations and other features that would benefit women.

However, there are also difficulties with such a policy. The "third sector" would have to be relatively large to make a serious dent in the problem. There are

obvious limitations to its growth, such as funding and public perception. The issue of the competitiveness of the private sector with the "third sector" would have to be resolved. The "third sector" could be used to further exploit women by using them as a source of cheap labour.

On the other hand, if the "third sector" provided employment opportunities for women far superior to the private sector and the public sector as a result of flexibility, quality of jobs and lack of bureaucracy, it could put pressure on the other sectors to improve their employment opportunities.

The "third sector" solution is one which merits further thought, although it is probably not the panacea envisioned by some.

Another innovative policy, which has already been implemented for other disadvantaged groups, are quota systems for their employment. More moderate policies are incentive systems for hiring or promoting certain groups. Effecting a change in the occupational distribution of women is a long-term task. The difficulties involved for the first women to break through into non-traditional areas are always enormous. It may require a quantum number of women in non-traditional occupations before the social, psychological and practical barriers to their employment are overcome. Hence, the question becomes how to achieve this quantum number. The anticipated shortage of highly skilled labour in the 1980's represents an opportunity to train many women in non-traditional occupations.

Another more radical policy involves the re-definition of work to include activities which are presently being carried out on an unpaid basis, such as adults caring for their children or elderly in their homes. These activities constitute vital work but are presently valued by society only in words. The

expense and administration of such schemes are serious matters, but not beyond the contemplation of a society with our resources. The question is really one of priorities and income distribution rather than lack of resources.

Although mentioned above, it is necessary to stress that policies that increase the compatibility of the workplace with family responsibilities are an essential part of an employment strategy for women. Availability of daycare, part-time work and flexible hours, job-sharing, child care leave similar to educational leave or pregnancy leave are of prime importance if women are to be able to compete on an equal basis with men.

FOOTNOTES

- 10.1 Ross, David P. "Employment Programs: What's Happening Abroad" in Perception May, June, 1978, p. 25-28.

CHAPTER 11

BROADER CONCERNS AND CONCLUSIONS

Criteria for Programs:

Today's solution to yesterday's problem has an obstinate way of becoming tomorrow's problem. This has occurred with many programs that promise to deal out mass-produced solutions to complex problems.

Regardless of whether the strategy chosen to address women's employment problems includes the improvement of traditional programs, or adopting innovative ones, there are certain essential criteria which any program should meet. These are simplicity, involvement, control, flexibility, accountability, relevance and alleviation of side-effects.

Policies and programs should be as simple as possible. Complexity breeds complexity which breeds confusion and waste. A related consideration is minimizing bureaucracy.

Another important feature is that programs should involve those concerned on as many levels as possible. The greater the extent to which programs are formulated and carried out by the women concerned, the more relevant, accessible, sensitive and supportive they are likely to be.

Policies and programs should be formulated and implemented in a way that encourages the independence and self-respect of participants. This is an important consideration. All too often these programs have eroded the self-respect of individuals, leaving them in an even more dependent position.

Although the report has not specifically studied Outreach, it is worthwhile to point out that Outreach programs that meet these criteria have benefits over and above regular services of Canada Employment Centres, regardless of narrowly defined cost-benefit evaluations.

Policies and programs should be flexible in both theory and fact and open to change by those concerned. The rigidities of the institutional training programs which have resulted in its inability to respond to changing labour market conditions, are warnings of the cost of failing to ensure this.

Accountability is a difficult problem. Frequently, neither the government nor the participant really accepts responsibility for the effectiveness of government programs, each blaming the other for failures. Accountability should not be defined by narrow or inflexible standards, but it should be there for both groups, and a spirit of co-operation and mutual respect and responsibility should be fostered. It seems that such a spirit is now sadly lacking.

Although all of the above considerations would help ensure the relevance of government labour market policies, an additional consideration is a forward looking approach. Policies should take into account likely future developments as well as present conditions. Implications of longer-term socio-economic developments on women's employment merit a great deal of study. Only a few major considerations are briefly discussed below.

Long-Term Considerations:

It is likely that the female labour force participation rates will continue to grow vigorously, at least

for the next decade and that not only employment of women but also the quality of their jobs will be pressing issues.

The possibility of further technological advances combined with limits to economic growth have severe implications for both employment and income distribution. This has led some investigators to anticipate a situation in which only a small proportion of the population would be needed to produce our goods and services. Today, paid work is the primary means in income distribution. The realisation of the above scenario would necessitate a revolution in our income distribution mechanisms as well as in the work ethic. A possible resolution is a re-definition of work to encompass activities not previously included, such as child care.

Another serious implication of technological change that would put severe stresses on female employment is the massive computerization of the service sector and some manufacturing industries. The full potential of the computer revolution has not yet been felt in these fields.

The continuation of energy problems will also likely have negative consequences for female employment. For example, although the service sector, which is an important employer of women, is not relatively high in energy use in production, the consumption of its services often involve energy intensive activities as in the example of transportation to a vacation.

Slower economic growth induced by high priced energy or dislocations resulting from energy shortages would obviously increase the difficulties of women in

finding employment. Women tend to suffer much more from economic declines than men.

Furthermore, if jobs in traditional male occupations continue to grow more slowly than female stereotyped service sector jobs, men may compete in larger numbers for the best of these jobs, resulting in a further deterioration in the relative position of women. On the other hand, training of women for anticipated shortages of highly skilled labour in the 1980's could help improve their position.

Side-effects of Programs:

Possible side-effects of programs and policies, side-effects which occur as frequently as with other medicines and cures, should be investigated and provisions made for alleviating them. There are a number of potential side-effects of employment policies aimed at women that demand serious consideration.

The first is the possibility of creating a circular dependence by women on such programs. A major program when implemented often insidiously creates a dependent way of life. The "economic" man or woman accepts an offer "too good to refuse" which may be at the expense of the whole man or woman further down the road. Hopefully, the guidelines discussed above would help avoid this.

A second type of side-effect is the effect on women who remain outside the labour force. As more women enter the paid workforce and pressure to improve their status increases, this can easily result in a deterioration in the relative situation of women outside the labour force. Not only wages and status are at stake, but also

all the rights and fringe benefits that go along with paid employment. For example, an employed woman who becomes pregnant has the right to paid maternity leave, while a woman who is working in the home does not. Similarly, pension schemes are tied to years of paid work.

The further penalization of the already disadvantaged group of homemakers is of great concern. Hence, employment policies to improve women's status in the labour force should be accompanied by policies to improve the status of those outside the labour force. Perhaps even more than employment policy, what is required is a re-evaluation of the activities necessary to our welfare, and the costs and rewards that go with them. The real problem is not more jobs, but the re-distribution of status, recognition and income. As suggested earlier, a radical change in our income distribution system, or financial rewards for work which is now unpaid are two possible avenues to effect this.

Improving the position of women is a major commitment which may entail some radical solutions. Half-hearted efforts are unlikely to be of any value. The question remains whether the federal government desires or is capable of this commitment.

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APPENDIX I

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF SELECTED LABOUR MARKET PROGRAMS*

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* This appendix provides a description of the theoretical goals and operation of selected labour market programs, past, present and suggested, without evaluating their effectiveness.

Training Programs:

The Canada Manpower Training Program consists of an institutional and industrial part. Under the institutional program, classroom training is provided in schools and community colleges. Institutional training consists of the following major components:

Occupational Skill Training; Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD); Job Readiness Training (JRT); Work Adjustment Training (WAT); Apprenticeship Training and Language Training.

Occupational Skill Training trains people in occupational skills.

Basic Training for Skill Development teaches basic academic skills, and prerequisites to meet the entrance requirements of a skill training course.

Job Readiness Training teaches chronically unemployed workers or disadvantaged labour force skills related to functioning in an employment situation.

Work Adjustment Training provides short-term assistance to workers who need help in adjusting to non-performance related demands of the workplace, such as attitudes and work habits.

Through the Apprenticeship Training program CEC pays the full cost of classroom training of registered apprentices.

Language Training is provided for immigrants and Canadian migrants whose lack of fluency in French or English prevents them from using their job skills.

Counsellors in CEC's are responsible for the selection, referral and authorization of adults eligible to take courses (with the exception of apprenticeship courses where referral is done directly by provincial officers).

Full-time trainees receive allowances which vary according to their status, number of dependents, distance from training centre and geographic location.

The overall implementation of the institutional Canada Manpower Training Program is governed by federal-provincial training agreements which define the roles of the two governments and guarantee minimum annual training expenditures in each province.

Under the Industrial Training Program, CEIC contracts with employers to assist in the training of their employees by reimbursing the employers for a portion of direct training costs and a portion of trainees' wages. The goals of this program are to meet the skill needs of the labour market and to improve the employability and earning capacity of adults, as well as to provide industry with incentive for training workers.

Any private Canadian employer is eligible to apply for training assistance under this program. The training project must meet certain criteria such as compatibility with training priorities established for its geographical area and criteria on its duration, quality and transferability of skills taught. The main restrictions on the project participants, are that they be employed by the company during training and be likely to benefit from training.

Direct Job Creation Programs:

The stated goals of the direct job creation programs have been to attempt to create new jobs, improve the labour market position of the disadvantaged and contribute to community betterment. CEC's Employment Strategy 1978-79, included the following direct job creation programs: Canada Works (CW); Young Canada Works (YCW); Local Employment Assistance Program (LEAP); Economic Growth Component of Canada Works; Local Employment Development Assistant Program (LEDA); and the UI Job Creation Pilot Project. Most of these projects are now being terminated. An important earlier job creation program, which was terminated in 1977, was the Local Initiatives Program (LIP). In May 1980, a new program, the Summer Youth Employment Program, was begun.

The projects sponsored by the direct job creation program generally involved restrictions on the type of sponsor and the type of project, the maximum amount of funding, the number and type of jobs created and the wages of project employees. The latter were generally tied to minimum wage levels or going local wage rates. The project participants were generally required to be hired through CEC's.

The Canada Works Program was begun in 1977 with the objective of creating new short-term jobs in areas of highest unemployment through projects that satisfied local and regional needs. Any established organization, partnership or corporation was eligible to submit projects which satisfied the criteria of creating jobs in excess of normal requirements that utilized the skills of the unemployed in the area and provided worthwhile services to the community on a non-profit basis. These services could not duplicate or compete with existing ones. Furthermore, projects could not create a

dependency which would remain unsatisfied at the termination of its government sponsorship. There were also restrictions on the cost of projects, participant wages and a lower limit on the number of jobs created.

Eligibility of projects was determined by Employment Development Branch officials of CEIC. Eligible projects were then reviewed by local, provincial and federal consultative bodies as well as by members of Parliament.

Funds for Canada Works projects were allocated to constituencies on the basis of estimated unemployment rates.

The expected labour market impact of the Canada Works Program was the creation of incremental short-term jobs. (The program did not necessarily decrease the measured unemployment rate because of the re-entry of discouraged workers in response to a Canada Works Program in the region.) The Canada Works Program is being phased out in 1980.

The Young Canada Works Program, begun in 1977, had as its major objectives reducing student summer unemployment rates, particularly in areas of highest youth unemployment; and providing students with work experience related to their career interests in order to improve their future employability. Sponsors and projects had to satisfy similar criteria as for Canada Works projects. An added stipulation was that all project employees be students (with some exceptions in rural areas.)

Young Canada Works project proposals were evaluated with respect to national employment policy, provincial and local priorities in a consultative process that included the three levels of government.

Program funds were allocated on a federal constituency basis according to summer youth unemployment rates.

The expected labour market impact of YCW was to reduce the unemployment rate of students in the summer. This program terminated March 31, 1980.

The Local Employment Assistance Program was begun in 1972. It is aimed at workers who have difficulty finding and keeping jobs as a result of personal disadvantage or residence in areas of high unemployment. Its stated objective is to increase the economic self-sufficiency of such workers.

There are two types of LEAP projects - preparation projects and retention projects. Preparation projects attempt to improve the skills and employability of the intrinsically disadvantaged, in order to facilitate transition to the regular labour market. Retention projects are small scale commercial enterprises that create permanent jobs.

LEAP projects are not usually solicited from the general public. Instead, LEAP officials identify potential sponsors in consultation with community-based organizations, voluntary agencies, federal departments and provincial governments. Alternatively, interested sponsors can contact the Employment Development Branch office in their area or their local CEC. LEAP project officers then work with the sponsor to develop a project proposal which is submitted to a Regional Review Board. Approved projects may be funded up to three years in addition to a 12 month developmental phase.

Again there are restrictions on the funding of each project and wages of participants in terms of the number of jobs created. The impact of LEAP cannot be measured by the number of jobs created but rather in terms of the quality and durability of employment opportunities created and by the impact on individuals in disadvantaged groups. This program is still operational.

The Economic Growth Component of Canada Works was begun in 1978-1979. Its objectives were to create new permanent private sector jobs and to support immediate job creation in activities which contributed to increased economic growth.

Federal government departments and agencies could submit proposals that stimulated private sector employment within their mandates. Neither the general public nor private sector were eligible to submit proposals. Proposals were reviewed by an Interdepartmental Review Committee consisting of representatives of six federal agencies, and were ultimately approved by Treasury Board. This program has been terminated.

The UI Job Creation Pilot Project was a new program begun in 1979, on a pilot project basis. As of 1979, one pilot project was operational. The program's objective was to test the feasibility of providing productive alternatives to continued job search for UI beneficiaries when further job search was not likely to be successful.

The Local Economic Development Assistance Program (LEDA) was approved in principal in 1979, but has never been operational.

Its major objective was to be the assistance of local private sector employment and small business. It was aimed

at very small businesses and small geographical or cultural communities experiencing a high unemployment rate.

It was planned that communities could develop LEDA corporations which could be funded by the federal government. These corporations would then find and develop business proposals for funding through normal channels. Provincial agreement for these proposals would be necessary.

The Local Initiatives Program (LIP), no longer operational, began in October 1971, as part of Finance Minister Benson's Special Employment Program. It was reduced and then finally terminated in 1977 as part of an attack on inflation. Its original objective was to create additional short-term employment to counteract seasonal unemployment during the winter. However, in later years of its operation, increasing emphasis was given to the reduction of regional unemployment as well. LIP was a precursor of Canada Works.

The Summer Youth Job Corps created short-term jobs in regions of high unemployment to provide young people with training and practical experience. Government departments and agencies contracted project leaders who became employers of young workers on projects relating to government priorities. Project staff was hired through CEC's for students or CEC's.

The Year Round Youth Jobs Corps was a new program begun in 1979, based on the Summer Youth Job Corps Program. It aimed at providing employment opportunities and developmental work-experience for unemployed youth and hence reducing unemployment.

The Summer Youth Employment Program (1980) begun May 15, 1980, creates seasonal employment for students in activities of community value, with the aim of increasing their work skills.

Subsidies Programs:

Under its wage subsidies program the federal government, has offered subsidies to private sector employers, either in the form of income or as a tax credit, for creating new jobs. The Employment Strategy 1979-80, included the following wage subsidy program: the Employment Tax Credit Program (ETCP); Job Experience Training Program (JET); Job Exploration for Students (JES) and the Portable Wage Subsidy Program. The defeated Conservative budget for 1980 included the never implemented Private Employment Incentives Program.

The Employment Tax Credit Program was begun in 1978. Its purpose is to create incremental employment in the private sector by offering tax credits to businesses who create and fill jobs in addition to normal needs. (The number of "new" jobs created is calculated by subtracting the number of people on the payroll last year from the number this year.) Individuals hired under this program must have been unemployed for at least two weeks. Almost all businesses which have been in existence for at least 12 months are eligible to participate. The jobs created must be full-time and of a minimum duration of three months. Depending upon the unemployment rate in the geographical area in which the new job is located, the tax credit to employers range from \$1.50 to \$2.00 per hour. This program is in the process of being extended.

Job Experience Training (JET) and Job Exploration by Students (JES) were aimed at young people. JET aimed at increasing the employability of recent school leavers by giving them employment experience. Employees had to agree to provide work experience in a newly-created position. However, no formal training needed be provided by the employer. CEIC gave employers a wage subsidy of up to 50% of the hourly rate paid to eligible employees up to \$1.50 per hour, to a maximum of \$1,560. The program was generally run through CEC's with active participation of local Chambers of Commerce and Boards of Trade. JET has been terminated.

JES was the summer component of JET and formed an element of the Summer Youth Employment Program. Its purpose was to provide potential early school leavers with the opportunity, based on exposure to employment, to make realistic decisions about continuing their education. The Chamber of Commerce and participating schools helped identify employers and students for the program. Subsidies of 50% of student salaries (up to \$540 per participant for a maximum of nine weeks) were provided to employers that hired eligible students during the summer. This program has been terminated.

The Portable Wage Subsidy Program was being developed for initiation in 1979-80, but was never implemented. It was designed to improve the employment prospects of specified groups of the unemployed, such as those laid off as a result of trade-related dislocations or major restructuring of industries. Eligible workers would have been able to carry a wage subsidy with them which would have been paid in cash to their new employers. The amount of the subsidy was tentatively set at \$1.50 per hour for the first year and \$0.75 per hour for the second year.

The Private Employment Incentives Program was a subsidy program which was introduced as part of the Con-

servative budget for 1980, which was defeated in the House of Commons. It was hoped that this program would create jobs in the private sector for more than 100,000 people. The cost of the program was estimated at \$250 million per year in tax expenditures. If the budget had been passed, the Private Employment Incentives Program would have offered tax credit of \$80 per week to employers who created new jobs for youth (those under 26); or who hired those in groups designated to be handicapped in the labour market. Those handicapped in the labour market fell into two categories:

- i) the long-term employed, defined as anyone who has been unemployed at least 13 out of the past 26 weeks, and who, in the opinion of the CEC counsellor, was likely to be unemployed for at least 13 out of the next 26 weeks;
- ii) members of those groups who have been traditionally disadvantaged in the labour market; and were presently unemployed and likely to be unemployed at least 13 out of the next 26 weeks. Eligible groups were: all native peoples, the handicapped, people over 55, and women returning to the labour force after a significant period of absence.

APPENDIX II

TABLES

TABLE 1
LABOUR FORCE CHARACTERISTICS
MALES AND FEMALES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS
1966-1978*

	<u>Growth Rate(%)</u>	<u>Change 1978-1966</u>	<u>Percentage Change 1978-1966</u>	<u>1978 Value</u>
Source population	2.4%	4,297,000	32.8%	17,381,000
Labour force	3.1%	3,350,000	44.5%	10,882,000
Employed	2.7%	2,703,000	37.2%	9,972,000
Unemployed	9.8%	646,000	245.3%	911,000
Unemployment rate	-	5%	139.0%	8.4%
Participation rate	-	5%	8.8%	62.6%
Employed/source population	-	2%	3.3%	57.4%

Source: Historical data obtained from the Labour Force Survey Division, Statistics Canada. Labour Force Annual Averages, 1975-1978, Cat. 71-529, February 1979.

Notes: *Based on revised data. See Footnote 1.1.

TABLE 2
PRIVATE SECTOR EMPLOYMENT GROWTH
1966-1978*

Industry	Growth Rate %	Contribution to Growth %	Revised 1966 Distribution %	1978 Distribution %
Agriculture	- 1.8	- 5.3	9.2	5.9
Forestry	.8	.2	.8	.8
Fishing	.6	.1	.4	.3
Mines	1.4	1.1	2.2	1.9
Manufacturing	1.2	12.4	28.4	24.2
Construction	2.9	9.1	8.3	7.8
Transportation, Communications, Post Office	2.5	5.5	5.4	5.5
Public Utilities	4.7	.4	.2	.3
Wholesale Trade	3.9	8.7	5.2	5.9
Retail Trade	3.0	18.1	14.6	15.5
Finance	4.4	10.2	5.2	6.4
Service	4.3	39.5	20.0	25.5
Other	-	-	-	-
Total Private	2.5	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Derived from Labour Force Survey, Statistics Canada.

Notes: *Unpublished data based on revised data. See Footnote 1.1.

"-" is based on an estimate of less than 4,000.

Figures may not add to total due to rounding.

TABLE 3
PUBLIC SECTOR EMPLOYMENT GROWTH
1966-1978*

	Growth Rate %	Contribution to Growth %	Revised 1966 Distribution %	1978 Distribution %
Federal Government Administration	3.7	13.5	14.3	13.7
Provincial & Municipal Government Administration	4.6	25.2	21.6	22.7
Government Education	4.5	33.6	27.0	29.1
Government Hospitals	3.4	8.0	9.4	9.0
Other Government	3.0	19.8	27.8	25.5
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Total Government	3.9	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Derived from Labour Force Survey, Statistics Canada.
Unpublished data.

Notes: *Based on revised data. See Footnote 1.1.
Figures may not add to total due to rounding.

TABLE 4
LABOUR FORCE CHARACTERISTICS, FEMALES
1966-1978*

	<u>Growth Rate</u>	<u>Change 1978-1966</u>	<u>Percentage Change 1978-1966</u>	<u>1978 Value</u>	<u>% of Females 1978</u>	<u>Change in % of Females 1978-1966</u>
Source Population	2.4%	2,220,000	33.5%	8,850,000	50.9%	.2%
Labour Force	4.9%	1,863,000	78.6%	4,232,000	38.9%	7.3%
Employed	4.4%	1,560,000	68.9%	3,824,000	38.3%	7.1%
Unemployed	11.6%	303,000	288.0%	408,000	44.8%	2.8%
Unemployment Rate	-	5%	117.2%	9.6%	-	-
Participation Rate	-	12%	33.8%	47.8%	-	-
Employment/ Source Population	-	9%	26.5%	43.2%	-	-

Source: Derived from historical data obtained from the Labour Force Survey Division, Statistics Canada, and Labour Force Annual Averages 1975-1978, Cat. 71-529, February 1979.

Notes: *Based on revised data. See Footnote 1.1.

TABLE 5
PRIVATE SECTOR EMPLOYMENT, FEMALES
1966-1978*

Industry	Growth Rate(%)	Contribution to Growth(%)	Revised 1966 Distribution (%)	1978 % Dis- tribution	% Female 1978
Agriculture	2.5	2.4	4.8	4.0	25.3
Forestry	-	-	-	-	-
Fishing	-	-	-	-	-
Mines	8.6	.7	.3	.5	9.8
Manufacturing	2.5	10.8	20.8	16.3	25.5
Construction	11.2	2.9	.8	1.5	7.3
Transportation, Communications, Post Office	5.4	3.8	2.8	3.2	21.7
Public Utilities	4.7	.1	-	.1	19.0
Wholesale Trade	5.9	4.6	3.1	3.6	23.3
Retail Trade	4.6	21.0	19.4	19.3	46.9
Finance	6.4	13.5	8.2	10.0	58.9
Service	4.3	40.3	39.8	41.5	61.3
Other	-	-	-	-	-
Total Private	4.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	37.9

Source: Derived from Labour Force Survey, Statistics Canada, unpublished data.

Notes: *Based on revised data. See Footnote 1.1.

"-" is based on estimate of less than 4,000.

Figures may not add to total due to rounding.

TABLE 6
PUBLIC SECTOR EMPLOYMENT GROWTH, FEMALES
1966-1978*

	<u>Growth Rate(%)</u>	<u>Contribution to Growth(%)</u>	<u>Revised 1966 Distribution (%)</u>	<u>1978 % Dis- tribution</u>	<u>% Female 1978</u>	<u>Change in % Female 1978-1966</u>
Federal Government Administration	5.7	14.2	12.3	12.1	35.3	5.1
Provincial & Muni- cipal Government Administration	8.7	24.9	11.9	18.5	32.6	13.2
Government Educa- tion	3.9	33.9	45.2	39.7	54.6	- 4.0
Government Hospitals	3.9	13.8	19.3	17.3	77.0	5.3
Other Government	5.7	13.3	11.2	12.4	19.6	5.5
<hr/>						
Total Government	5.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	40.1	5.0

Source: Derived from Labour Force Survey, Statistics Canada, unpublished data.

Notes: *Based on revised data. See Footnote 1.1.

Figures may not add to total due to rounding.

TABLE 7

AVERAGE EARNINGS IN GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT SECTORS
BY SEX*

Average Earnings: Government

<u>Year</u>	<u>\$ Male</u>	<u>\$ Female</u>	<u>\$ Difference Male - Female</u>	<u>% Female/ Male</u>
1969	7,504	4,596	2,908	61
1971	8,716	5,507	3,209	63
1973	10,646	6,231	4,415	59
1975	13,695	8,088	5,607	59
1977	16,756	9,915	6,841	59

Average Earnings: Non-Government

<u>Year</u>	<u>\$ Male</u>	<u>\$ Female</u>	<u>\$ Difference Male - Female</u>	<u>% Female/ Male</u>
1969	6,529	2,891	3,638	44
1971	7,509	3,396	4,113	45
1973	8,879	3,982	4,897	45
1975	11,439	5,364	6,075	47
1977	13,392	6,771	6,621	51

Average Earnings: Total

<u>Year</u>	<u>\$ Male</u>	<u>\$ Female</u>	<u>\$ Difference Male - Female</u>	<u>% Female/ Male</u>
1969	6,713	3,293	3,420	49
1971	7,755	3,885	3,870	50
1973	9,222	4,510	4,712	49
1975	11,897	6,021	5,876	51
1977	14,056	7,462	6,594	53

(Table 7, cont'd)

Source: Unpublished data from Survey of Consumer Finances:
1970 Survey (1969 income)
1972 Survey (1971 income)
1974 Survey (1973 income)
1976 Survey (1975 income)
1978 Survey (1977 income)
Consumer Income and Expenditure Division, Statistics
Canada.

- Notes: * i) All individuals with income whose labour force status is either paid worker, non-farm own account, or farm-employed own account.
- ii) Major source military pay and allowances excluded.
- iii) Government category is paid workers only.
- iv) Non-government includes everyone who was not either paid government business or paid government non-business.
- v) Earnings are the sum of wages and salaries and net income from self-employment.

TABLE 8

NET CHANGES IN EXPERIENCED LABOUR FORCE BY OCCUPATION AND RELATED INFORMATION: 1961 TO 1971, FEMALES *

(Ranked by Net Change)

Occupation (1961 Occupational Classification)	Net Change 1971-1961	Distribution of Net Change 1971-1961 (%)	Actual 1971 Occupational Distribution of Female Work- force (%)	% of Workers in Occupation who are female-1971	Average Employment Income - 1970 (Full-time only) Female Male
Clerical					
NES 249	130,704	11	10	60	4,926 6,988
Bookkeepers & Cashiers 201	114,502	10	7	82	4,556 6,505
Steno- graphers 232	83,497	7	8	98	5,134 NA
School Teachers 135	68,816	6	6	63	7,568 10,059
Nurses, Graduate 142	56,033	5	4	97	6,852 NA
Waitresses 415	42,887	4	4	86	2,996 3,814
Typists 234	40,218	3	3	96	4,544 NA
Sales Clerks 325	39,371	3	6	58	3,560 6,692
Nursing Assist- ants & Aides 416	31,791	3	3	77	4,435 5,687
Janitors & Clea- ners, Bldg. 454	28,556	2	2	35	3,549 5,672
Sub-total	636,375	53	53	71	NC NC
Not Stated 980	298,414	25	12	44	4,168 8,053
All Other	264,135	22	35	19	NC NC

Total	1,198,924	100	100	34	5,230 9,101
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(Table 8, cont'd)

Source: Derived from 1961 Census: Labour Force: Occupations by Sex, Canada and Provinces (Cat. 94-503).
1971 Census - unpublished data provided by CANSIM, Statistics Canada.

Notes: * i) All data is for the experienced labour force, with the exception of average employment income.

ii) Average employment income is restricted to those with employment income who worked full-time, full-year (49-52 weeks) in 1970. Hence, those who worked part-time or part-year, unpaid family workers and those who worked in 1971 but not in 1970 are excluded.

iii) The 1971 experienced labour force consists of those who worked in 1970 or 1971 and were in the labour force the week prior to the Census. The definition for 1961 differs only slightly.

iv) Employment income (or earnings) is the sum of wages and net income from self-employment.

v) Occupations are defined by the 1961 Occupational Classification.

vi) Occupational data from the 1971 Census has been recoded to the 1961 classification for the purpose of comparison with 1961 data. This was based on a sample of 110,000 individuals from the 1971 Census one-third sample of households.

vii) NA: numbers not published because of unreliability.

viii) NC: not calculated.

ix) NES: not elsewhere specified.

x) Figures may not add to totals because of rounding.

TABLE 9

NET CHANGES IN EXPERIENCED LABOUR FORCE BY OCCUPATION AND RELATED INFORMATION: 1961 TO 1971, MALES*

(Ranked by Net Change) Occupation (1961 Occupation Classification)	Net Change 1971 - 1961	Distribution of Net Change 1971-1961 (%)	Actual 1971 Occupational Distribution of Male Work- force (%)	% of Workers in Occupation Who Are Male - 1971 -	Average Employment Income - 1970 (Full-time only) Female Male
Owners & Managers 010	79,309	8	9	88	6,421 12,872
School Teachers 135	58,911	6	2	37	7,568 10,059
Labours, excl. Agr., Fish., 920	48,108	5	6	91	3,591 5,973
Log., Mine Op. Janitors & Clea- ners, Bldg. 454	41,202	4	2	65	3,549 5,672
Clerical, 249 NES	36,494	4	3	40	4,926 6,988
Professional, NES 199	35,583	4	1	67	7,397 11,034
Welders & Flame Cutters 817	26,933	3	1	99	NA 8,276
Sales Clerks 325	26,458	3	2	42	3,560 6,692
Sales Managers 004	24,629	3	1	97	NA 12,648
Guards, Watch- men, NES 405	24,464	3	1	95	NA 6,488
Sub-total	402,091	42	28	65	NC NC
Not Stated 980	316,149	33	8	56	4,168 8,053
All Other	237,905	25	64	67	NC NC
Total	956,145	100	100	66	5,230 9,101

(Table 9, cont'd)

Source: Derived from 1961 Census: Labour Force: Occupation by Sex, Canada and Provinces (Cat. 94-503).
1971 Census - unpublished data provided by CANSIM, Statistics Canada.

- Notes: * i) All data is for the experienced labour force, with the exception of average employment income.
- ii) Average employment income is restricted to those with employment income who worked full-time, full-year (49-52 weeks) in 1970. Hence, those who worked part-time or part-year, unpaid family workers and those who worked in 1971 but not in 1970 are excluded.
- iii) The 1971 experienced labour force consists of those who worked in 1970 or 1971 and were in the labour force the week prior to the Census. The definition for 1961 differs only slightly.
- iv) Employment income (or earnings) is the sum of wages and net income from self-employment.
- v) Occupations are defined by the 1961 Occupational classification.
- vi) Occupational data from the 1971 Census has been recoded to the 1961 classification for the purpose of comparison with 1961 data. This was based on a sample of 110,000 individuals from the 1971 Census one-third sample of households.
- vii) NA: numbers not published because of unreliability.
- viii) NC: not calculated.
- ix) NES: not elsewhere specified.
- x) Figures may not add to totals because of rounding.

У-НТ, 'АТНАТ.

[illegible]

(Table 10-A, cont'd)

SOURCE: Goldman, Barbara. New Directions for Manpower Policy. C. D. Howe Research Institute, Montreal, 1976. Table revised to include actual 1975-76 data.

NOTES:

- a The data in this table refer to programs under the jurisdiction of the Department of Manpower and Immigration. Program expenditures for Opportunities for Youth since its inception are included in this table, although the program has been under the jurisdiction of the Department of Manpower and Immigration only since January, 1974.
- b Actual data obtained by present researcher December 17, 1979.
- c Operation expenditures of Canada Manpower Centres (CMCs) cover salaries and support costs in connection with the operation of the CMCs. This is all inclusive of any expenditures that might have been incurred in connection with such programs as Job Information Centres. This category also includes the partial expenditures of the Special Job Finding and Placement Drive (\$3.7 million from 1973 to 1975) and the Student Summer Employment Program, excluding OFY (\$8.4 million from 1972 to 1975).
- d Data for job creation programs are on a fiscal-year basis.
- e For fiscal years 1971-72 to 1973-74, OFY was under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of State.
- f Includes provincial offices of employment.
- g Refers to capital assistance payments to the provinces during transitional phase-out of the Technical and Vocational Training Act.
- h No data available.

TABLE 10-B

ACTUAL MANPOWER PROGRAM EXPENDITURES IN CANADA, BY FISCAL YEAR

Total Manpower Program Expenditures (Actual), Canada,
by Fiscal Year, 1976-77, 1977-78, 1978-79^{a,b}

(thousands of dollars)

	<u>1976-77</u>	<u>1977-78</u>	<u>1978-79</u>
TOTAL	919,888	1,121,894	3,060,663
Program Administration	18,623	19,279	83,422
Employment Services	112,194	132,644	76,514
Administration	111,687	131,945	76,196
Diagnostic Services	302	333	313
C.E.S. Operating Costs	205	366	5
Job Creation Branch	203,673	344,095	299,172
Administration	14,056	25,178	21,672
L.I.P.	175,429	37,230	275
L.E.A.P.	13,974	19,023	24,117
O.F.Y.	2	-	-
Canada Works	-	218,819	210,362
Young Canada Works	-	18,414	42,541
Summer Job Corps	-	237	205
S.S.E.A.P.	212	25,194	-
Manpower Training Program	553,103	577,516	553,026
Administration	5,360	5,281	18,341
Institutional Training	482,854	489,849	445,315
Training Cost Purchases	288,043	304,669	333,992
Allowance Costs	194,811	185,180	111,323
Industrial Training	59,511	76,721	83,698
Trainee Travel	5,347	5,611	5,671
Training Research	31	54	1
Other Manpower Development Services	32,295	48,360	92,554
Administration	9,995	12,911	37,278
Manpower Mobility ^c	8,782	10,370	10,742
Labour Mobility & Assessment Incentives	679	1,203	1,749

(Table 10-B, cont'd)

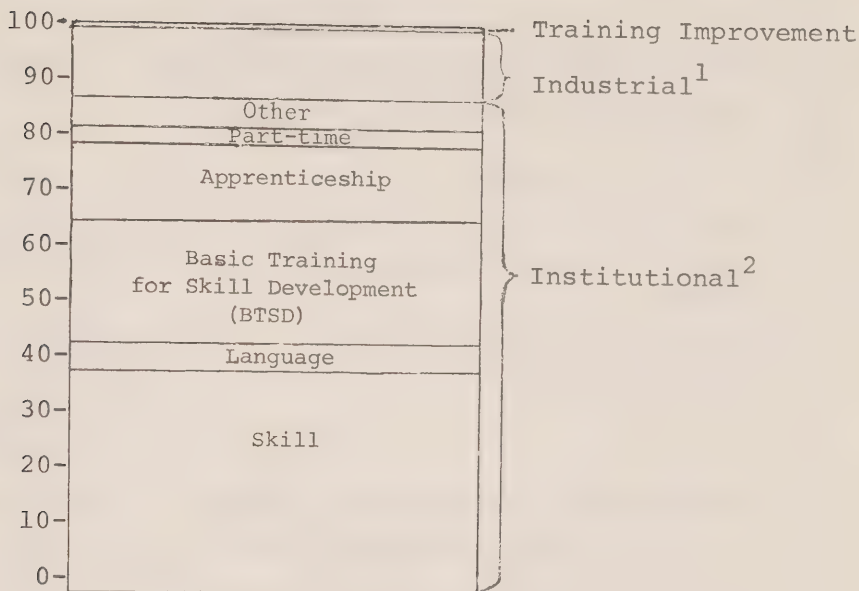
	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79
Farm ^c	3,438	3,879	3,811
Outreach ^c	7,924	8,711	9,712
Voluntary Organization	231	104	227
Frontier College ^d	100	110	125
Co-op Education	-	198	515
C.E.S. Grants & Contributions	1,124	1,288	2,319
Job Experience Training - Summer	-	940	1,426
Job Experience Training - Winter	22	8,080	23,954
FLIP	-	406	696
Creating a Career	-	160	-
Insurance Program			
Insurance Benefit Services Administration	-	-	145,652
Social Insurance Number Administration	-	-	5,345
Contributions to U.I. Account (Previous Year)	-	-	1,739,395
Contributions to Fishermen's Benefits (Current Year)	-	-	65,583

Source: Unpublished data obtained by the author from Financial Services, Employment and Immigration Canada, December 17, 1979.

- Notes:
- a) The change in activity structure in 1976-77 for the former Department of Manpower and Immigration, and the integration of Manpower and Immigration and UIC financial data in 1978-79, necessitate a different format for the years 1976-77 to 1978-79.
 - b) The years 1976-77 and 1977-78 represent the data for the former Department of Manpower and Immigration and 1978-79 represents the data for the Employment and Insurance Program.
 - c) These programs were classified under Employment Services in financial data before 1976-77.
 - d) Frontier College was classified under Training in financial data before 1976-77.

CHART 1

DISTRIBUTION OF TRAINING EXPENDITURES 1977-78



Source: Canada Manpower Training Program, CEIC. Annual Statistical Bulletin 1977-78, pp. 25, 30.

Notes: ¹Includes Youth Apprentice Training.

²Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD) includes Basic Job Readiness Training (BJRT) and Work Adjustment Training (WAT).

Does not include unemployment insurance expenditures.

Total figures are actual expenditures; part-time figures are purchase expenditures; full-time figures are actual expenditures with part-time purchase expenditures subtracted out.

TABLE 11

INSTITUTIONAL FULL-TIME TRAINEES STARTED:
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SKILL TRAINEES BY OCCUPATION TRAINED
FOR COMPARISON OF 1974-75 AND 1977-78

Occupational Designation by Two-Digit CCDO*	1974-75	1977-78
11: Managerial, Administrative and Related	.6	.8
21: Natural Science, Engineering and Mathematics	1.6	2.4
23: Social Sciences and Related	.5	.5
25: Religion	-	-
27: Teaching and Related	.5	.4
31: Medicine and Health	4.4	3.5
33: Artistic, Literary, Performing Arts and Related	.8	1.2
37: Sport and Recreation	-	.1
41: Clerical and Related	24.8	24.3
51: Sales	1.4	1.1
61: Service	6.6	7.5
71: Farming, Horticulture and Animal Husbandry	15.6	13.5
73: Fishing, Hunting, Trapping and Related	2.0	2.5
75: Forestry and Logging	1.9	2.3
77: Mining, Quarrying, Oil and Field	.4	.4
81-82: Processing	1.8	2.5
83: Machinery and Related	8.1	8.8
85: Product Fabricating, Assembling and Repair	13.9	12.2
87: Construction Trades	8.2	8.7
91: Transport Equipment Operating	5.1	5.0
93: Material-Handling and Related, N.E.C.	-	-
95: Other Crafts and Equipment Operations	1.3	1.7
99: Occupations Not Elsewhere Classified (N.E.C.)	.5	.6
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

Source: Interdepartmental Evaluation Study of the Canada Manpower Training Program, Table 21, p. 117.

Canada Manpower Training Program. Annual Statistical Bulletin 1977-78, CEIC, Table 4.8, p. 64.

Notes: *Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations.

TABLE 12

HISTORICAL FEMALE REPRESENTATION
IN TRAINING PROGRAMS: TRAINEES STARTED

	<u>1975-76</u>	<u>1976-77</u>	<u>1977-78</u>	<u>1978-79</u>
Skill	37	40	38	42
Language	52	55	55	55
Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD)	55	55	55	54
Basic Job Readiness Training (BJRT)	50	55	60	61
Work Adjustment Train- ing (WAT)	37	41	45	44
Apprenticeship	3	3	3	3
Total Institutional (Full-Time)	32	33	32	33
Total Industrial	-	27	28	29

Source: CEIC Annual Report for fiscal year 1977-78; and additional unpublished data compiled for the author by the Employment Training Branch, CEIC.

TABLE 13

OCCUPATIONAL SKILL TRAINING:
LEADING OCCUPATIONS¹ FOR FEMALE TRAINEES STARTED 1978-79

Occupational Designation by 3-digit 1970 CCD0 ²	- SKILL TRAINEES -		- 1971 WORK FORCE -	
	% of all women skill trainees	% of trainees who are female	% of female labour force	% of oc- cupation which is female
411: Stenographic & Typing	30	96	11	96
419: Other Clerical & Related	22	93	5	56
614: Personal Service Occupa- tions	8	90	4	78
313: Nursing, Therapy & Re- lated Assisting	7	80	7	88
612: Food & Beverage Preparation & Related Service	7	54	6	64
855/ Fabricating, Assembling & 856: Repairing: Textiles, Furs & Leather Products	5	81	3	70
413: Bookkeeping, Account-Record- ing & Related	4	79	9	75
414: Office Machine & Electronic Data-Processing Equipment Operators	2	96	1	73
All Occupations ³	100	42	100	34

Source: Employment Training Branch, CEIC. Unpublished data.
1971 Census: Labour Force: Occupations: Occupations by Sex (Cat. 94-717).

Notes: ¹Leading occupations are those with the highest percentage of female skill trainees.

²Canadian Classification & Dictionary of Occupations.

³All occupations and not just sum of leading occupations.

TABLE 14

APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING:
LEADING OCCUPATIONS¹ FOR FEMALE TRAINEES STARTED 1978-79

Occupational Designation by 3-digit 1970 CCDO ²	- APPRENTICESHIP TRAINEES -		- 1971 WORKFORCE -	
	% of all female apprenticeship trainees	% of trainees who are female	% of female labour force	% of oc- cupation which is female
614: Personal Service Occupa- tions (mostly cooks & hairstressers)	74	86	4	78
612: Food & Beverage Prepara- tion & Related Service	9	24	6	64
878/ 879: Other Construction Trades	4	-	-	1
873: Electrical Power, Lighting & Wire Communications Equip- ment Erecting, Installing & Repairing	2	-	-	1
513/ 514: Sales Occupations, Commodities	2	11	8	34
All Occupations ³	100	3	100	34

Source: Employment Training Branch, CEIC. Unpublished data.

1971 Census: Labour Force: Occupations: Occupations by Sex (Cat. 94-717).

Notes: ¹ Leading occupations are those with the highest percentage of female appren-
ticeship trainees.

² Canadian Classification & Dictionary of Occupations.

³ All occupations and not just sum of leading occupations.

TABLE 15

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING
LEADING OCCUPATIONS¹ FOR FEMALE TRAINEES STARTED 1978-79

Occupational Designation by 3-digit 1970 CCDO ²	- INDUSTRIAL TRAINEES -		- 1971 WORKFORCE -	
	% of all female industrial trainees	% of trainees who are female	% of female labour force	% of oc- cupation which is female
855/ Fabricating, Assembling & 856: Repairing: Textiles, Fur & Leather	14	78	3	70
821/ Food, Beverage & Related 822: Processing	11	47	1	26
413: Bookkeeping, Account- Recording & Related	9	78	9	74
612: Food & Beverage Prepara- tion & Related Service Occupations	8	60	6	64
513/ 514: Sales Occupations, Commodities	7	40	8	34
419: Other Clerical & Related	6	71	5	56
313: Nursing, Therapy & Related Assisting	6	72	7	88
614: Personal Service	3	77	4	78
411: Stenographic & Typing	3	97	11	96
414: Office Machine & Electronic Data-Processing Equipment Operators	2	81	1	73
All occupations ³	100	29	100	34

Source: Employment Training Branch, CEIC. 1971 Census: Labour Force: Occupations: Occupations by Sex (Cat. 94-717).

Notes: ¹Leading occupations are those with the highest percentage of female industrial trainees.

²Canadian Classification & Dictionary of Occupations.

³All occupations and not just sum of leading occupations.

TABLE 16

A. PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE TRAINEES BY AGE - 1978-79

		Less than 20	20-24	25-44	45+	Total
Skill	%	10	33	47	10	100
Language	%	5	24	62	9	100
Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD)	%	22	32	41	6	100
Basic Job Readiness Training (BJRT)	%	17	28	46	10	100
Work Adjustment Training (WAT)	%	17	31	41	11	100
Apprenticeship	%	23	49	27	2	100
Total Institutional (full-time)	%	14	32	45	9	100
Total Industrial	%	16	30	43	11	100

B. PERCENTAGE OF MALE TRAINEES BY AGE - 1978-79

		Less than 20	20-24	25-44	45+	Total
Skill	%	11	41	42	6	100
Language	%	6	21	63	10	100
Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD)	%	23	46	29	2	100
Basic Job Readiness Training (BJRT)	%	26	36	34	4	100
Work Adjustment Training (WAT)	%	21	34	37	8	100
Apprenticeship	%	6	55	38	1	100
Total Institutional (full-time)	%	10	47	39	3	100
Total Industrial	%	17	32	41	10	100

Source: Employment Training Branch, CEIC. Unpublished data.

Notes: Figures may not add to total due to rounding.

TABLE 17

MARITAL STATUS OF TRAINEES - 1978-79

		<u>FEMALE</u>			<u>Total</u>
		<u>Single</u>	<u>Married</u>	<u>Other</u>	
Skill	%	41	37	22	100
Language	%	22	72	7	100
Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD)	%	50	30	20	100
Basic Job Readiness Training (BJRT)	%	45	25	30	100
Work Adjustment Training (WAT)	%	59	12	30	100
Apprenticeship	%	-- not available --			
Total Institutional (Full-Time)	%	43	36	21	100
Total Industrial	%	43	46	11	100

		<u>MALE</u>			<u>Total</u>
		<u>Single</u>	<u>Married</u>	<u>Other</u>	
Skill	%	61	35	5	100
Language	%	40	57	2	100
Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD)	%	73	22	5	100
Basic Job Readiness Training (BJRT)	%	72	20	8	100
Work Adjustment Training (WAT)	%	71	18	11	100
Apprenticeship	%	-- not available --			
Total Institutional (Full-Time)	%	63	32	5	100
Total Industrial	%	52	44	4	100

Source: Employment Training Branch, CEIC. Unpublished data.

Notes: Figures may not add to total due to rounding.

TABLE 18

EDUCATION OF TRAINEES - 1978-79
(NUMBER OF YEARS OF FORMAL EDUCATION)

		<u>FEMALE</u>								<u>Total</u>
		<u>1-7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>14+</u>	
Skill	%	3	5	9	22	19	28	6	7	100
Language	%	14	7	6	11	9	23	7	24	100
Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD)	%	16	21	28	22	8	3	1	1	100
Basic Job Readiness Training (BJRT)	%	16	18	20	20	10	12	2	2	100
Work Adjustment Training (WAT)	%	7	13	15	23	13	18	6	5	100
Apprenticeship	%	-- not available --								
Total Institutional (Full-Time)	%	9	12	16	21	14	19	4	6	100
Total Industrial	%	7	7	9	16	14	30	6	10	100

		<u>MALE</u>								<u>Total</u>
		<u>1-7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>14+</u>	
Skill	%	5	7	11	22	18	26	5	7	100
Language	%	11	7	7	12	9	19	8	28	100
Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD)	%	13	20	26	23	13	4	1	1	100
Basic Job Readiness Training (BJRT)	%	25	21	21	18	6	6	1	1	100
Work Adjustment Training (WAT)	%	11	14	15	29	9	14	4	4	100
Apprenticeship	%	-- not available --								
Total Institutional (Full-Time)	%	8	11	15	22	15	19	4	6	100
Total Industrial	%	7	6	9	18	15	30	5	10	100

Source: Employment Training Branch, CEIC. Unpublished data.

Notes: Figures may not add to total due to rounding.

TABLE 19

NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS OF TRAINEES - 1978-79

		<u>FEMALE</u>					<u>Total</u>
		<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4+</u>	
Skill	%	82	10	5	2	1	100
Language	%	92	4	3	1	0	100
Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD)	%	77	11	6	3	2	100
Basic Job Readiness Training (BJRT)	%	70	14	9	4	3	100
Work Adjustment Training (WAT)	%	79	12	6	2	1	100
Apprenticeship	%	93	4	2	1	0	100
Total Institutional (Full-Time)	%	80	10	6	3	2	100
Total Industrial	%	83	8	5	2	2	100

		<u>MALE</u>					<u>Total</u>
		<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4+</u>	
Skill	%	77	6	7	5	4	100
Language	%	63	10	12	9	6	100
Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD)	%	84	5	5	4	3	100
Basic Job Readiness Training (BJRT)	%	82	5	6	4	4	100
Work Adjustment Training (WAT)	%	86	3	5	3	3	100
Apprenticeship	%	72	8	10	7	3	100
Total Institutional (Full-Time)	%	76	7	8	6	3	100
Total Industrial	%	55	13	13	11	8	100

Source: Employment Training Branch, CEIC. Unpublished data.

Notes: Figures may not add to total due to rounding.

TABLE 20

LENGTH OF PARTICIPATION
IN SELECTED DIRECT JOB CREATION PROGRAMS

	<u>Number of Participants</u>	<u>Total Number of Workweeks Contracted</u>	<u>Estimated Average Number of Weeks of Participation</u>
Canada Works, Phase I (CWI)	31,043	655,278	24 ¹
Canada Works, Phase II (CWII)	57,016	1,238,250	25.4 ²
Canada Works, Phase III (CWIII)	54,381	942,667	20.7 ³
Young Canada Works (YCW)			
- 1977	30,505	301,872	9.9
- 1978	27,635	281,190	10.2

Source: Canada Works participant data from Participant Records and Program Status Report, June 11, 1979, Job Creation Branch, CEIC. (See Footnote 6.7(i)a.) Unpublished data.
Young Canada Works participant data from Job Creation Branch, CEIC. (See Footnote 6.7(iii).) Unpublished data.

Notes: ¹ CWI estimate based on an average 30-week duration of job and 1.25 turnover rate of participation.
² CWII estimate based on an average 31.7-week duration of job and 1.25 turnover rate of participation.
³ CWIII estimate based on an average 31-week duration of job and 1.5 turnover rate of participation.

TABLE 21

PRE AND POST LABOUR FORCE STATUS OF CANADA WORKS PHASE I PARTICIPANTS BY SEX

	MALES		FEMALES		BOTH SEXES	
	Pre- Canada Works ¹	Post- Canada Works ² (%)	Pre- Canada Works ¹	Post- Canada Works ² (%)	Pre- Canada Works ¹	Post- Canada Works ² (%)
Employed	34.0	28.2	30.0	27.3	33.0	27.9
Unemployed and Looking for Work	51.0	61.7	44.0	54.7	49.0	60.1
Unemployed and Not Looking for Work ³	4.0	6.1	10.0	11.1	6.0	7.3
Training/School	11.0	4.0	16.0	6.9	12.0	4.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Canada Works participant data and data from Program Evaluation Branch follow-up survey. (See Footnote 6.7(i).) Unpublished data. Data was collected 4 or 5 months after participant left program.

Notes: ¹Main status - that is, a measure of the average percentage of time spent in each activity by the participants during the year before the program starts.

²Measured 4 to 5 months after program termination.

³Unemployed and Not Looking for Work is an aggregation category used by CEIC that includes those on temporary lay-off, the retired and voluntarily "idle".

TABLE 22

REASON FOR LEAVING THE LOCAL EMPLOYMENT ASSISTANCE PROGRAM (LEAP)
BY PROJECT TYPE

Reasons for Leaving LEAP (as stated by participants)	Retention Projects (%)	Preparation Projects (%)
Placed in full-time job by Project	7.2	13.6
Found full-time job	16.5	26.1
Placed in part-time job by Project	0.7	1.1
Found part-time job	3.6	3.0
Returned to school and entered training	7.9	10.6
Household responsibilities	5.8	4.2
Illness/Disability	6.5	7.6
Dismissed by Project	28.0	7.2
Incarcerated/Re-incarcerated	-	3.4
Quit of own accord*	18.0	7.9
Completed the course*	-	10.9
"Other" reasons (includes retirement, pregnancy, and relocation)	5.8	4.2
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Strategic Policy and Planning Branch, CEIC. Future Policy and Planning Report, October 1977. (See Foot-note 6.7(ii)b.) Unpublished data.

Notes: *Roughly 3 in 4 ex-participants giving these reasons went into full-time employment, thereby raising the respective job placements for ex-Retention participants to 42% and to 58% for ex-Preparation participants.

TABLE 23

CANADA WORKS AND LOCAL INITIATIVES PROGRAMS
PROJECTS BY ACTIVITY

	Canada Works Phase I (CWI)	Canada Works Phase II (CWII)	Canada Works Phase III (CWIII)	Local Initia- tives Program (LIP) 1976-77
<u>Construction & Lands, Parks, Forestry</u>	<u>62.7</u>	<u>55.0</u>	<u>57.7</u>	<u>51.6</u>
Building Construction	31.9	27.2	29.3	18.6
Non-Building Construction	13.5	13.2	14.0	16.9
Lands, Parks, Forestry	17.3	14.6	14.4	16.1
<u>Service</u>	<u>29.4</u>	<u>32.8</u>	<u>30.4</u>	<u>37.7</u>
Artistic & Cultural	5.9	7.1	7.7	7.3
Education Service	6.8	5.9	6.2	7.6
Information Service	2.9	4.1	5.7	2.9
Social Service - Health	13.8	15.7	10.8	19.9
<u>Other</u>	<u>7.9</u>	<u>12.2</u>	<u>11.8</u>	<u>10.7</u>
Profit-Making Activities	0.1	0.2	0.8	-
Sport & Recreation	3.1	5.2	4.0	6.0
Research & Analysis	4.7	6.8	7.0	4.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Sources: Canada Works data, see Footnote 6.7(i)a. Unpublished data.
LIP data, see Footnote 6.7(iv).

TABLE 24

PARTICIPANTS IN PRIVATE-SECTOR WAGE SUBSIDY PROGRAMS BY SEX

		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
		<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>
Job Experience Training (JET)	1977-78	8,029	39	12,559	61	20,588	100
	1978-79	22,002	44	28,002	56	50,004	100
Job Exploration by Students (JES)	1978	1,452	37	2,473	63	3,925	100
Employment Tax Credit Program (ETCP)	March 1978 to May 31, 1979	15,675	45	19,159	55	34,834	100

Source: Wage Subsidy Programs Branch, CEIC. Unpublished data.

TABLE 25

LENGTH OF PARTICIPATION
IN SELECTED PRIVATE WAGE SUBSIDY PROGRAMS*

		<u>Total Number of Work Weeks</u>	<u>Average Length of Participation (weeks)</u>
Job Experience Training (JET)	1977-78	242,845	11.8
Job Exploration by Students (JES)	1978	27,824	7.0

Source: Wage Subsidy Programs Branch, CEIC. Unpublished data.

Notes: *This information was not available by sex.

